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A PLAIN AND COMPLETE
GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE;
TO WHICH IS PREFIXED
THE ENGLISH ACCEDENCE:
WITH
REMARKS AND OBSERVATIONS
ON
A SHORT INTRODUCTION
TO
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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L O N D O N:

PRINTED BY G. BIGG, CRANE-COURT, FLEET-STREET,

FOR J. RIDLEY, IN ST. JAMES'S-STREET.

M DCC LXXII.

T O
HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS
GEORGE Prince of Wales.

S I R,

TO say imagination and thought-
less Wit, the study of languages,
and the labour of writing grammars
and dictionaries, is "as dry-
gery for the blind," a proper toil
of artists industry, a task which requires
neither the light of learning, nor the
activity of genius; but let imagination
and Wit stop awhile their sportings, and
reflect, that were there no grammar nor
dictionary, there would be little or no
light of learning, or it would soon vanish
in the darkness of ignorance.

Grammar is the foundation of all
literature; inasmuch that without it not
any thing can be correctly spoken, no-
thing



T O
HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS
GEORGE Prince of WALES.

S I R,

TO airy Imagination and thoughtless Wit, the study of languages, and the labour of writing grammars and dictionaries may appear, “as drudgery for the blind, or as the proper toil of artless industry, a task which requires neither the light of learning, nor the activity of genius;” but let Imagination and Wit stop awhile their sportings, and reflect, that were there no grammar nor dictionary, there would be little or no light of learning, or it would soon vanish in the darkness of ignorance.

Grammar is the foundation of all literature ; insomuch that without it not any thing can be correctly spoken, no-
a 2 thing

thing accurately and elegantly written,
nor what is written be readily and
with certainty understood.

The importance of grammar, however evident, is less sensibly felt than the labour of learning and the difficulties of understanding it, especially in an unknown tongue.

The English grammar, which with all due respect I beg leave to present to your Royal Highness, aims to remove, or certainly to lessen those difficulties by explaining each technical term, and the reason of every rule.

Should it merit your Royal Highness's approbation, this will add pleasure to the honour which I have in subscribing myself,

Your Royal Highness's

Most obliged,

Most obedient

And devoted Servant,

James - Street,
Westminster.

ANSELM BAYLY.

DEDICATION

P R E F A C E.

IN the years 1756, 8, was published "An Introduction to Languages, and received with such approbation, as exceeded the author's utmost expectation. After this, in the year 1762 appeared "A Short Introduction to English Grammar;" which for neatness of style and many judicious criticisms hath deservedly met with esteem from the learned. The author in his preface acknowledges himself enabled to correct several mistakes by some remarks which were communicated to him in private; and it is hoped, he will not be offended, if some other mistakes are publickly and modestly pointed out to him, which seem to require correction.

To write a grammar for any language, especially a living, which is subject to continual variation,

variation, is undoubtedly a most arduous undertaking; but to write such a grammar as shall escape mistakes is not to be expected even from many, much less from a single hand. The author therefore of the present attempt to write a universal grammar, may justly claim the candor of the learned.

In the first edition of the present work, the grammars were placed in one view comparatively and concisely for the study of men, rather than plainly and amply for the instruction of youth; which grammars now stand separated in as full and explicit a manner as possible: but still, as in the first scheme, the English is made the principal, as it were, the conductor into one grand edifice, whose foundation is sought for and laid in nature; this grand edifice is language in general, and particular languages, which differ only in idioms, its several apartments.

The reader is desired to observe, that general rules, in which all languages agree, are printed in

in a larger letter, to distinguish particulars, called idioms, which are expressed in a smaller; it is also absolutely necessary, that he should begin with The English Accedence, otherwise he will not readily understand many things in this grammar.

The importance of grammar is seen, if from no other argument, from the multiplicity of grammars, that have been written in all languages. Grammar is that, which every child is concerned to learn, and what many a man hath employed himself in teaching by his pen, and by verbal instruction.

The multiplicity of grammars may seem also to infer the facility of grammar, since every master of every petty school thinks himself qualified to write one, especially of his native tongue; but the difficulty is manifest from the imperfection of each. The learned Wallis hath written a grammar; so have the Johnsons, and the author of a Short Introduction; still the complaint

plaint continues from Natives as well as Foreigners, "we have no good English grammar."

Now in order to remove the complaint, the question should first be resolved, what is a good English grammar? What are the requisites necessary to constitute it? Must it be such as is calculated merely for children, void of all learning, expressed in vulgar language, and without any technical terms? This would be a quality unnecessary and improper; because children never learn grammar any more than they do language of themselves, and they may as well be taught elegantly as vulgarly: But it is scarcely a possible quality; because children cannot come at any knowledge of grammar without some Instructor, and because no art or science, though it may be written upon in mean language, can be explained without the use of some terms.

Now the grammatical terms have been in use for ages, nor perhaps can any better, or more expressive be invented.

Well

P R E F A C E. ix

Well then, is a good English grammar such as is adapted to English only? This again is improper, if not impossible; because English is not self-originated, because a liberal education requires the knowledge of the learned languages, and lastly, because the use and intention of grammar is to improve the understanding of children into that of men.

Now then perhaps the question may be resolved, What is a good, or complete English grammar? One that is learned, plain and extensive.

It ought to be learned in the use of technical terms, for neatness of style, and for critical observations, but plain and clear in its expressions, definitions, method and rules; and it ought to be extensive, so as to take in the whole English tongue, and be introductory to other languages, particularly Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

x P R E F A C E.

This is the Idea or plan, upon which is formed the following English grammar, and which is entitled "Plain and Complete," but not perfect: the original title was an Introduction to languages, or a grammar literary and philosophical, especially to English, Latin, Greek and Hebrew; but it was thought too complex, and the present as more simple was preferred by the Publisher.

In order to make the grammar descend as much as possible to the capacity of youth, it is introduced by a plain, short and familiar Accidence, teaching only the pronunciation and distinction of letters with the parts of speech.

Grammar is a subject of study; its nature will not admit of amusement, till the Student be well acquainted with the art, than which no part of literature is more entertaining, instructive and surprizing. When you can enter into the depth of language, then its very elements will raise delight and admiration in viewing the formation, interchange, and fixed number

ber of simple, articulate sounds ; which, however tasteless to the trifling wit of a Moliere, have attracted the attention of the grave Bishop Wilkins, and other learned writers.

The most difficult and important part of language is the Syntax ; to this therefore is paid the greatest regard in the first and present edition.

If the unlearned, whose instruction and ease is in every part attentively regarded, shall receive improvement from the study of this grammar, the principal end in writing it will be attained, and if the learned, whose amusement is consulted occasionally but their candor hoped for every where, should disapprove of any criticisms, or think the vindication of particular phrases that have been reprehended, insufficient, and will be pleased to communicate their observations, the author promises to receive them with every mark of respect and acknowledgment, earnestly wishing that this attempt might by the help of others be improved into a really good and absolutely perfect English grammar.

I would recommend it to the Master in the use of this grammar, to let the scholar barely read it over at first, explaining to him any words and parts, which he may not understand; but in the second perusal to make him parse the general rules, and get them by heart; and if I might, I would still farther advise, that the Learner, after he is by this practice enabled to understand English Prose well, be taught to read some of our Poets, particularly Milton, to parse as he proceeds, and to look out the difficult words in the dictionary: If to this be added a general knowledge of Geography, it will wonderfully facilitate the learning of the dead languages, and beget a taste and pleasure in reading the Greek and Latin Classics.

I take the liberty of enforcing the preceding advice by the authority of a very wise remark from the preface of a Short Introduction to English Grammar.

“ A competent knowledge of our own language is the true foundation, upon which all literature,

literature, properly so called, ought to be raised. If this method were adopted in our schools, if children were first taught the common principals of grammar by some short and clear system of English grammar, they would have some notion of what they are going about, when they enter into the Latin grammar ; and would hardly be engaged so many years, as they now are, in that most irksome and difficult part of literature, with so much labour of the memory, and with so little assistance of the understanding."

Milton hath also made some observations much to the same purpose, in his Tract on Education ; whom I have followed in writing "*Accedence*," that which leads up or approaches to, namely, grammar, from *accedo*, rather than "*Accidence*," from *accido*, which derivation seems to convey no sense. Milton may be followed in some particular spellings, but not in the general ; who is as monstrous in literal as in political freedom, leaving out significant consonants and vowels, though at the same time
in

in domestick government he is despotick as the most absolute Prince, manifesting a remarkable corruption of human nature, that those who contend the strongest for liberty and take most themselves, allow, when they have the command, the least to others.

THE

[i]

T H E

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

GRAMMAR, from its subject Letters, Words and Sentences, and from its derivation γραφω, to engrave and write, may be defined, the art of teaching the true sound and writing of Letters, the distinction of Words and their construction in Sentences: hence Grammar is divided into four parts, called by the Greek names of

ORTHOEPY, - Correct Speaking;

ORTHOGRAPHY, Correct Writing;

ETYMOLOGY, $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{Distinction} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{Derivation} \end{array} \right\}$ of Words;

SYNTAX, - - Connexion and Construction of Words in Sentences.

B

OR-

ORTHOEPY and ORTHOGRAPHY

Of Letters interchanged in writing, added and omitted.

INterchange of sounds accidentally introduceth that of letters; and this, the change of one language, and formation of another.

Letters most liable to change are those of the same organ; which may be called Cognate, that is, kindred Letters.

The VOWELS change

A	O	U	A	E	O
	into			into	
E	A	O		U	
I	U	I		very short	

The CONSONANTS are changed

The Tenués

P	Ca	S	T
into the Medies			
B	Ga	Z	D
these again into the soft Aspirates			
F	ch	fh	th
and these again into the hard Aspirates			
V	J	zh	the French je
The Lenis			
H			
into the hard or guttural Aspirate			
gh in Scotch			
ch in German or Welch.			

The

The Liquids *l, m, n, r* change into one another, particularly *l* and *r*, as colonel, cornel, cornish; so in Latin, *puer puella*.

A single consonant between two vowels is apt to be pronounced very strong: hence one cause of double letters.

The English very often in writing, as, put putting, but generally in speaking, double by a hard pronunciation a consonant between two vowels, pronouncing the preceding vowel very short and hastily, as, linen, any, anarchy, ever, living, another; pronounced, *linnen, anny, annarchy, evver, livving, anothther*, contrary to the practice of the Italians, and, we may suppose, of the Latins and Greeks, who pronounce the preceding vowel long, and liquidate the consonants, as, *bravissimo, cappello, litus or littus, litora or littora*.

A short vowel between two consonants is often silent, as, genral, sovrein, for general, sovereign, so in Latin, *ulna* from *ωλεναι*; and of two or three consonants forming a Syllable, as *isle, debt, doubt, subtle, receipt, condemn, reign*, the ear or *euphony*, that is, agreeable sound, and speed require the consonant standing most in the way to be mute, that is, *Ile, det, dout, futtle, receit, condem, rein*, and might be so writ, did not derivation forbid it, from the Latin *insula, debitum, dubium, subtilis,*

receptum, *condemno*, *regnum*; yet in some words the distinguishing letter is omitted, as, *p* in *deceit*, *g* in *master* from *deceptum*, *magister*; in *deign*, *malign* from *dignor*, *malignus*, the *g* is preserved though it cannot be pronounced, nor ought it in *physiognomy*, which should be pronounced *phyfionnomy* like the Italian.

Before consonants, which have the nature of semi-vowels, the vowel is sometimes omitted, and sometimes added, as, *ftablifh* or *eftablifh*, *fpecially* or *efpecially*, *ftate* and *eftate*, *force* and *efforce*.

An attention to this doctrine of the letters would enable us to account for moft of the variations and derivations in languages, and give us the precise or ideal meaning of words.

The vowels are long or fhort in proportion as they receive a more or lefs open found: hence primarily arifeth *Quantity* in fyllables, that is, a certain time or meafure obferved in their pronunciation; for example, in *all*, *a* preferves a full, open found, in time long, but in *alone* and *fyllable* it is fhort: the firft therefore is a monofyllable long, the fecond a diffyllable, the firft fhort and the laft long, and the third a trifsyllable, the firft long and the two laft fhort: in
trif-

trissyllables the last syllable is named *ultima*, the second *penultima*, and the first *antepenultima*.

This is the general rule of quantity: *a* broad is long by nature, so are diphthongs proper; and a vowel before two consonants either pronounced or written is long by position.

Another principal part of Orthoepy, next to that of quantity, is *modulation*, that is, the melodious raising and falling of the voice in speaking and reading, particularly in oratory and poetry; in which the measure of syllables and the modulation of the voice were regulated by the Greeks and Latins to the time and melody of certain musical notes and tones: hence the term *accentus*, *προσῳδία* accent or prosody, that is, singing, or a song to a musical instrument, such as antiently the flute or lyre.

Accents can in nature be only three, *acute* raising the voice, *grave* falling it, and *circumflex* raising and falling, a kind of turn in musick.

Let it be observed, that in every language, if the stress of the accent lengthen the vowel in that syllable on which it is laid, the vowels in the other syllables will of course, particularly in the hurry of speaking, often be interchanged, namely,

namely, the open and long vowels into the narrow and short.

People inhabiting different parts of a nation are apt to differ in their manner of speaking and writing, or, as is commonly said, spelling many words of a language; hence what are called

Dialects, Διαλεκται, that is, δια through, or by means of, and λεγω to speak.

A language is looked upon to be spoken the purest in and near the capital, as, London, Rome, Athens, Jerusalem.

Every language by the interchanges of sounds, which unavoidably happen in speech, will, without more wisdom to prevent it than human, have its differences in writing, and consequently its dialects; though they are remarkable in no language but in the Greek, because professedly and regularly observed by the writers of no other language.

The difference of pronouncing English by the common people in different counties is so various and diverting, that were writers to follow pronunciation, we should have more dialects than the Greeks. The Essex dialect would be remarkable for changing the
diph-

diphthong *ou*, *ow* into the triphthong *iau*, as *kiaus*, for cows; the Glostershire and Somersetshire for changing *a* open into the diphthong *ea* or *ia*, *o* into that of *uo*, as, father, mother, pronounced *fiather* or *viather*, *muother*; they frequently use *v* for *f*, and *z* for *s* with many other changes, as, *yaw maw* or *mowe ne dup the yat*, for you may not open the gate; *zir yr zarvant* for sir your servant. These dialects are often used by Chaucer and Spencer: thus Chaucer in the plowman censuring the assumed power of the church of Rome, says

Popes, cardynals and prelates
 Of heuyn and hell they kepe the yeates;
 They make us thralles at her lust,
 And sayne we mowe not els be saved,
 They have the corne and we the dust,
 Who speaketh there agayn, they say, be raved.

The English like most other living languages hath in different ages undergone surprising alterations, not only in the use of words themselves and their pronunciation, but also in their manner of writing, being as little fixed in one as in the other. From the reign of Queen Elizabeth, wherein literature, which began with the reformation in the reign of her grand father Henry VII. to set its foot in England, had made a considerable progress, to the present time, it is astonishing to observe the difference in writers, nay
 of

of the same writer ; insomuch that it would tempt one to doubt, whether in the English language there be any such thing as orthography at all, especially if we take into the account the emendations proposed by Sir Thomas Smith in his treatise entitled *de reſtâ et emendatâ linguæ anglicanæ ſcriptione dialogus*, and afterwards by others.

To prevent such violent changes as these Authors propose, miſſed by pronunciation ; to restrain the licence of every writer from introducing his own peculiarities, and eſtabliſh orthography, the following general Rule may be of use.

Such letter or letters should be retained as are *characteriſtick*, that is, mark the derivation, pronunciation or termination, and letters which favour neither derivation, pronunciation, nor ſerve for any purpose of diſtinction may be rejected as redundant, or false : a few instances may ſuffice juſt to illustrate the rule.

A

redundant after *e*, when it ſerveth not to make *e* long, as in dead, death from die ; wealth from well ; ſo in dearth, breath, breſt, dread, ſpread, ſteady, inſtead ; all which are pronounced ſhort, and, if no etymology ſtand in the way, might be ſo writ, namely, ded, deth——.

E final

E

final in all words, where it serveth neither to change nor lengthen another vowel, is mute, if not redundant, as in breathe, cause, cease, choose, discourse, encrease, heave, leave, house, mouse, hoarse, coarse, course, goose, atchieve, believe, deceive, grieve, perceive, receive, relieve, grease, praise, raise; which and many more words are long, as pronounced, without the *e* final: but in other words, which are pronounced short, *e* final is improper, as in, absolve, averse, disperse, curse, disburse, horse, pulse, purse, purpose, serve, starve, come, some, done, gone, have, dove, glove, love, move, prove, shove, give, live, agile, fertile, genuine, imagine, examine, medicine, treatise, infinite, intuitive, negative, offensive, abortive, affirmative, communicative, comparative, superlative, &c. which might be writ short, absolv, avers, curs, like divers distinguished from diverse.

D

is redundant or rather improper before *ge* in alledge, colledge and other words, from the Latin *allego*, *collegium*, but not in judge and judgement, where the *d* points out its derivation from *judex*, *judicium*.

C

is not redundant before *k* final in words derived from the Latin, wherein *c* may be retained, as

C

well

well as the *k*, which is an English termination ; as in *publick* from *publicus*.

T

is mute, if not redundant, before *ch* in catch, fetch, watch, &c. pronounced cach, fech, wach, like each, much, fuch.

Words ill spelt, contrary to analogy in pronunciation and derivation.

Controll, roll, toll, better controle, role, tole ; to practise from the Italian *pratico*, why not writ alike the verb and noun? dice, lice, mice, the plural of die, louse, mouse, why not writ regularly, dise or dies, life, mise? advice from advite, choice from choose, why not writ the same, like use and to use? exceed, precede, proceed, recede; why not writ alike either with double *ee* or single *e*, since they are of one derivation from *cedo*? *e* ought not to be omitted after *g* in judgement, because *g* without *e* after it, is the guttural *γ*, as in jug, but with *e* it is the palatine aspirate; therefore it ought not to be writ judgment, but judgement. Middleton writes taste without *e* final, *taft*, certainly contrary to pronunciation, where *e* final serves to make *a* long, and without it the *a* is short; it would be just as proper to write haste, *bast*: neither again is there any sort of propriety in his writing plain, explain, *plane*, *explane*; the first method being more agreeable to pronunciation, and not less so to derivation from the Latin *planus*

planus, and *explano*: for others insert an *i* suitable to pronunciation, and he is for adding an *e* contrary to it.

Words introduced from any other language, except proper names, ought to have an English form and termination, as, odium, encomium, decorum, like odious, kingdom; interreign like sovereign; phenomenons; not *odium*, *encomium*, *decorum*, *interregnum*, *phaenomena*: so it should be literate like illiterate, epitomy, recipy, not *literati*, *epitome*, *recipe*; cherubim is plural and ought not to be cherubims.

I

after *u* is mute in bruise, cruise, fruit, recruit, view, suit, suitable, which though supposed to be derived from the French, might be writ as pronounced, namely, bruse, cruse, frute, recrute, like brute; vew, like *dew* or the French *veue*.

O

is redundant in double, trouble, touch; unless retained to shew their derivation through the French *touchez*, *troubler*, *double*, which themselves came from the Latin *tactus*, *turba*, *duplex*; *o* is also redundant in young, younger, nourish, flourish, from *juvenis*, *junior*, *nutrio*, *fluo*.

U

is redundant in build; but after *g* in guile, guilt, guide, the *u* may be necessary to direct the sound of

the *g*, though it is not retained in *to gild*, *gilt*: words ending in *our*, *ous*, as *favour*, *glorious*, *odious*, *horror* ought to have the *u* for the sake of the English termination, distinct from the French *faveur* and the Latin *favor*, *gloriosus*, *graciusus*.

G

is not redundant before *n* in *foreign*, *foreigner*, from the Latin *foris regnum*; in *sovereign* the *g* is useful to mark its derivation from *super* and *regno*. Some of our old writers following the French write *publique*; this was improper, because it formed no distinct termination, nor shewed the derivation: such form therefore hath been judiciously changed into *publick*.

All double letters are useless and unnecessary, except when they distinguish, as in *title*, *tittle*; *pole*, *poll*; *choler*, *colour*, *collar*; *later*, *latter*.

Where is the propriety of doubling *t* in *letter*? for it is not in the Latin *litera*, nor in *literal*. The Latins and Greeks were guilty of this superfluity, not to say, absurdity of doubling letters almost as much as the English and other Europeans: the Hebrews seem never to have used double letters but in the nature of a deflection; which is a proof that they followed not pronunciation but reality in their written language, and that it is the only language wherein orthography can be said to stand, preserved by the same finger of God, which gave it existence.

The

The corrections above hinted at, if they were all to be made, it is true, would considerably alter the face of the English language, but if some of them were judiciously introduced and familiarised by custom, they would soon appear very rational, and contribute greatly to brevity and the ease of learners, both natives and foreigners.

E T Y.

ETYMOLOGY.

Of the NOUN SUBSTANTIVE.

NAMES or nouns are in general divided into *common* or *apellative*, as God, man, river; *proper*, as Jehovah, Adam, Euphrates; *primitive*, as love; *derivative*, as lover; *abstract*, arising from adjectives, as from good, white, able, come goodness, whiteness, ability.

When a word is used according to general rules, or contrary to them, it is said to be

Regular, or *Analogous*;

Irregular, or *Anomalous*.

The usual marks only of genders can be given, it being impossible to bring them under such rules as shall be free from exceptions either in English, Latin, Greek or Hebrew; each of which apply the same terminations to males, females and inanimates: in this the Latins and Greeks use very great licence, often making the same substantive masculine and feminine, or neuter and feminine; some adjectives, as *felix*, are of all three: hence Lilly, and other grammarians following him would draw four
more

more genders, namely, the commune of two, the commune of three, the doubtful and epicene.

The common way of distinguishing the sex in English, Latin and Greek is by two words, as man, woman; boy, girl; bull, cow: but it would have been more agreeable to nature and brevity to distinguish the sex by varying the termination; this is done generally in Hebrew, and sometimes in Latin, as, *puer* boy, *puella* girl; *maritus* husband, *marita* wife; *caper* he, *capra* she goat.

The *relations*, which one noun bears to another, or to a verb, might also be expressed by different terminations of the noun without a preposition, or by construction and prepositions without variations: the latter is the method used in Hebrew and English; but the Latins and Greeks employ prepositions with variations, to the great labour of learning their languages. The variations of a noun are called *cases*, *casus*, that is, falls, so called because the first is said to be *rectus* upright, and the others *obliqui* oblique, falling or declining.

The

The CASES are

Nominative	<i>Nominativus</i>
Genitive	<i>Genitivus</i>
Dative	<i>Dativus</i>
Accusative	<i>Accusativus</i>
Vocative	<i>Vocativus</i>
Ablative :	<i>Ablativus.</i>

The first is the mere noun as *agent* or *subject*, said to come before the verb; the second implies *getting* or *possession*, expressed in English generally by *of*, that is, *belonging to*, or by the apostrophe *'s* for *is* or *es*, anciently a regular variation or case used by our old poets, and borrowed, it is said, from the Saxon *; the

* See "Short Introduction."

Though it be true that Chaucer and Spencer use *is* or *es* in the form of a genitive case, yet there appear not sufficient reasons for affirming that it is a remain of the Saxons and not an abbreviation of *his*: the compilers of our liturgy and translators of the bible certainly use it as borrowed from *his*; and the judgement of them, who were nearest the fountain head, may surely be relied upon with as much safety as of those who stand at a great distance; for Jesus Christ *his* sake, here the whole possessive pronoun is used, more solemnly than Christ's; or Christ's sake.

the third implies *giving to*, or *doing for* another; the fourth stands as *patient* or *object*, said to follow the verb; the fifth is the person or thing spoken to, or *called upon*, as *sir*, or *o sir*, *o heavens*; the sixth is so called in Latin from *aufero* to take away; implying generally *deprivation*, as *from*, *out of*. A noun immediately following another as its expletive is said to stand in *apposition* to the preceding noun, and in the same case, as, Cain the son of Adam slew Abel his brother.

In English *s* affixed generally forms the plural number, as *lion*, *lions*; *horse*, *horses*. Nouns ending with *ch*, *sh*, *ss*, &c take *e* before *s*, as *church* churches, *brush* brushes, *princess* princesses, *box*, boxes; nouns ending with *f*, *fe*, change *f* into *v*, as *leaf* leaves, *life* lives: some few have *en*, as *man*, woman, *men* women; *chick* chicken, *brother* brethren. Some are still more irregular, as, *die* dice, *mouse* mice, and some are the same in both numbers, as, *sheep*, *grass*, *fowl*, *fish*, *deer*, *youth*. *Means*, now commonly but improperly used in the singular number as well as plural, was antiently distinguished, *mean* singular, *means* plural. "The only mean and instrument of salvation, required of our part, is faith." Hom. 2. on the Passion page 260.

Of the NOUN ADJECTIVE.

Adjectives in nature agree with substantives: yet as an adjective considered by itself and in nature is singular, that is, expresseth but one quality, and is of no sex, it is not absolutely necessary in language to vary its termination to the gender and number of its substantive.

The English never vary adjectives; they say, good man, good woman, good men, women: the Hebrews make adjectives pay a great, yet not an implicit regard to the gender and number of substantives. The Latins and Greeks make adjectives agree with substantives in case, gender and number. In English adjectives generally stand before, in other languages after the substantive.

DEGREES *of* COMPARISON.

As in nature things differ in degrees of quality, condition, excellency, so in language words are made to express those degrees by being repeated, or augmented and enlarged either by an addition of letters or by the junction of an adverb. Most grammarians fix to
adjectives

adjectives three degrees of comparison, and name them, *positive*, which in reality is no degree, it being the mere word simply and positively expressing a quality, as wise, great; *comparative*, used when two are compared, as wiser, more wise, or to express a degree positively, something more than common, as a heart *too hard*, a burden *too heavy*, that is, more than can be borne; *superlative* used when the comparison is made between many, or to express a high degree of excellency positively without being in comparison, as, he is a very great, a very wise man.

The comparative degree is formed in English first by *r*, *er* added to the simple adjective, as pure purer, mighty mightier, hard harder: secondly, by *more* placed before the adjective, particularly those ending in *ain*, *ive*, *cal*, *less*, *ry*, *al*, *ble*, *ish*, *ous*, *ed*, and some others, to be learned by observation: thirdly by diminishing and negative adverbs, as *less*, *not so* *as*, *not equal to*. The comparative is heightened by the junction of other adverbs, as, *by far*, *much*. After the comparative is used *than*, as, God is wiser *than* man, one man is less prudent *than*, *not so* prudent *as* another:

Note, The latter substantive must be in the same

case as the former, between which the comparison is made, as, I am wiser than he, not so wise as he, he walks faster than I, not than *him, me*, though often used improperly in discourse, the sense when completed being wiser than he is, faster than I walk.*

The superlative degree is formed first by *st, est* added to the simple adjective, as, purest, hardest: secondly by *most, very, mighty*. To express very high excellencies or deficiencies are employed other adverbs, adjectives, or nouns used adverbially, as, by *far* the most learned, *uncommonly* great, *exceeding* broad, *beyond comparison, expression, above measure*. The use of double comparatives and superlatives in discourse and the familiar style, as, *more harder, worser, lesser, most hardest*, are certainly vulgarisms, yet evidently not improper in nature, nor upon earnest and sublime occasions ||, such as those wherein the Translators of the Old and New Testament, using as it were a stretch of power, have happily imitated the Hebrew and Greek by a double superlative, or addition of the comparative; thus in the Psalms, *most highest*; 2 Cor. xi. 5. 12. *very chiefest*; Eccles. v. 8. *higher than the highest*; Eph. iii. 8. *less than the least*, Act. xxvi. 5. *most straitest*; double comparatives and superlatives are frequently found in Latin.

The

* As judiciously remarked in the short Introduction.

|| As hinted in the short Introduction, page 43.

The superlative is often expressed by a repetition of the noun in the genitive case plural, as horse of horses, servant of servants, holy of holies.

Degrees are also expressed by a variation of the same noun, or by synonymous words; such may be named

Augmentatives

Augmentativa

Diminutives

Diminutiva

Mighty, almighty; shadow, shade; house, hut, cot, cottage; aw, fear, fright, terror, horror; white, whitish.

IRREGULAR COMPARISONS.

Good better best, bad worse worst, little less least, much or many, more most: it is remarkable that these adjectives are irregular in Greek and Latin.

The following nouns are very peculiar in all languages as well in their manner of declining as in their convenient use, supplying the place of other nouns, especially of proper names; for which reason they are named

P R O-

THE ENGLISH

PRONOUNS *Pronomina*,

That is, *pro* for or instead of, and *nomen*
a name.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

First person, of the common gender.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> I	we
<i>Gen.</i> of me	of us
<i>Dat.</i> to, for me	to us
<i>Accus.</i> me	us
<i>Voc.</i> —	—
<i>Abl.</i> from me	from us

Second person common.

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom.</i> thou	ye, you
<i>Gen.</i> of thee	of you
<i>Dat.</i> to thee	to you
<i>Accus.</i> thee	you
<i>Voc.</i> o thou	o ye
<i>Abl.</i> from thee	from you

Third

Third person.

Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, Common.

<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Gen.</i>	of him	her	it	of them
<i>Dat.</i>	to him	her	it	to them
<i>Accus.</i>	him	her	it	them
<i>Voc.</i>	—	—	—	—
<i>Abl.</i>	from him	her	it	from them

Pronouns reciprocal, reciproca.

So called, because used after the verb when its action doth not pass to another, but is reflected upon, or remaineth in the agent itself; as, I feed myself.

Singular.

Plural.

Himself	herself	itself	themselves
Myself	ourselves	yourself	yourselfs
			ourselves

The personal pronouns are of the *substantive* kind and *primitives*; those of the *adjective* kind and *derivatives* from the personal are generally used instead of the primitives, when it is

is required to signify to whom a thing belongeth, or by whom *possessed*, that is to say, in the *genitive case*; from whence they are borrowed and named

Possessive, *Possessiva*.

My, mine; thy, thine; your, his, her, its, their; as my, our, thy book, books; for the book of me, us: in the Western Counties they say, *ourn, yourn, bern, theirn*, for ours, theirs, yours; which though held as vulgarisms are yet analogous to mine, thine, and more intelligible than ours, yours, whose plural terminations are seemingly inexplicable.

PRONOUNS

Demonstrative, *demonstrativa*, that is, *pointing* at the thing or person spoken of.

<i>Singular, Common</i>		<i>Plural,</i>
This,	that	those, these

Article	{	prepositive, definite, and indefinite,	<i>Articulus</i>	{	<i>præpositivus,</i> <i>definitus,</i>

Named prepositive, because *set before* a noun, and *definite*, when expressive of some one particu-

ticular thing or person, and *indefinite*, when not so expressive.

The, definite, singular and plural, as, the King, the servants; *an*, *a*, that is, one, indefinite and singular only: *a* is used before a consonant, *y* and *w*; *an* before the other vowels and *b* quiescent, as, a man, a youth, a woman, an infant, an humble, a happy man: the definite article is often omitted in poetry.

PRONOUN

Relative, *relativum*, so named, because relating to a preceding noun or sentence, called its

Antecedent, *antecedens*, going before, of *ante* before, and *cedo* to go.

Singular, Plural and Common

<i>Nom.</i>	who,	which	that, what
<i>Gen.</i>	whose, of whom,	which	
<i>Dat.</i>	to whose, whom,	which	
<i>Accus.</i>	whom,	which	
<i>Abl.</i>	from whom	which	

E

Where

Where, there with the prepositions affixed are often used instead of *which, that*, as, whereof, thereof, to, at, in, upon, by, with ; which manner of expression, though established by use, convenient, harmonious and administering to variety, some are pleased to censure as coarse and abstruse compounds, but surely no more so than many others in English and Latin, as, wherefore, therefore, without *absque*, from whence *unde*, hereafter *abhinc*. This pronominal use, saith one of the best criticks of the age * is proper, useful and analogous. Is it not then surprising to find the Author of the short Introduction, quoting with such approbation the censure of this use from the writer of the characteristicks? whose boasted criterion, that ridicule is the test of truth, is no more to be depended upon in this trifling than in serious applications.

The pronoun *who* generally refers, or should refer to person, *which* and *that* to things ; but *that* and *which* are frequently used for *who* rather by the direction of the ear than of the judgement, as, “ man that is born of a woman hath but a short time to live—art thou the first man that is born—the Lord will not hold him guiltless that taketh his name in vain ” Here if *who* be substituted for *that*, the sentence will run heavy ; so our Father *which* art

* Dr. Johnson in his Grammar.

art in heaven is required by the ear, which abhors the hiatus of *who* art in heaven. *What* is often used neutrally like *quid* and *quod*, including the antecedent; so also is *that* including the relative, as, "have ye not read *what*, that is, the thing which, David did, when he was an hungered? to do always *that* is righteous, for *that which* is righteous in thy sight." Use certainly justifies this omission of the antecedent and relative for the sake of brevity, or harmony, when not attended with obscurity; otherwise this liberty is justly censured in Short Introduction 159, and its accurate use excellently described in page 160. The licence of omitting the relative must be allowed the Poets.

The vengeful victor rages round the fields
With ev'ry weapon, art or fury yields,

that is, which art or fury yields :

Less keen those darts the fierce Illythiæ send,

that is, those darts which the fierce Illythiæ send are less keen. Pope's Iliad, book xi. l. 341, 348.

Pro-

THE ENGLISH

PRONOUN

Interrogative, *interrogativum*.

So named because it asketh a question.

Who, which, what?

Pronouns doubled, compounded, or added to nouns generally carry an emphatick, superlative sense.

Self and *own* have this use; as I my self, I even I, my own self, my own hand, thou thyself, he himself, she herself, they themselves, you yourself, ye yourselves, the very man, this very man, the self same, the very self same, ourself, ourselves. *Ourself*, which now remains the property of majesty was heretofore used in common. "God give us grace to know these things, and to feel them in our hearts: this knowledge and feeling is not in ourself; by our ownself it is not possible to come at it." Hom. for Whitsunday.

He himself, *they themselves*, are now also used for he his self, they their selves; which use is objected against by the author of the "Short Introduction, page 39, and by Wallis before him, as an inaccuracy, because *himself* in the oblique case is joined with *he*, *they* in the nom-

nominative : but are not *his, herself, themselves* equally of the oblique case, that is to say, borrowed from the genitive, and liable to the same objection ? if sound and custom be not a sufficient plea for these seeming inaccuracies, then I would vindicate them by a supply of the preposition understood, he *for, as to* himself, she of herself like the Latin *egomet, tute*, that is, *ego, tu, secundum me, te.*

To these pronouns may be added others, which are in frequent use, and may be called

Distributive, *distributiva.*

One, some one, some body, a certain man ; some, the one the other, this that ; one another ; either, one or the other, one of the two, neither ; such a one, such as ; how many ? any one ; whoso, whosoever ; whatsoever, every one. *This, these, the one*, saith Short Introduction, page 158, used distributively by pointing at two particulars, refer to the latter, *that, those, the other*, to the former like *ille, hic*. This perhaps may be a proper rule and often observed, as thus by Maundrell, page 64. " The most rocky parts serve for the plantation of vines and olive trees ; which delight to extract, the one its fatness, the other, its sprightly juice ;" but this rule is not always observed, as, " Nineveh and Babylon were both equally enemies

enemies to the people of God; the one subverted the kingdom of Israel, and the other the kingdom of Judah*. Indeed this use of distributives ought to be sparingly made, being often attended with obscurity and labour to the hearer and reader. The preceding sentence would be more perspicuous, and consequently more elegant by repeating the nouns referred to, thus, Nineveh subverted the kingdom of Israel, and Babylon the kingdom of Judah.

Nouns expressive of number, called *numeral adjectives*, are distinguished into

Cardinal, Ordinal, Distributive, Multiplicative.

One,	First,	Single, every one	Simple,
Two,	Second,	couple, two of	—double,
Three, &c.	Third.	triple, three of	—triple, threefold.

The cardinals are often expressed by figures, called *cypbers*, and by letters of the alphabet.

Units

* Newton on Prophecy, vol. 1st. page 126.

<i>Units</i>	<i>Tens</i>	<i>Hundreds</i>	<i>Thousands</i>
1 I	10 X, I	100	1000
2 II	20 XX, I	200	2000
3 III	30 XXX, I	300	3000
4 IV	40 XL, I	400	4000
5 V	50 L, I	500	5000
6 VI	60 LX, I	600	
7 VII	70 LXX, I	700	10000
8 VIII	80 LXXX	800	20000
9 IX	90 XC, I	900	30000

Of the V E R B.

A verb, as it expresseth the action or state of a *noun*, is its attribute, and is a kind of adjective: hence the verb may have *number*, *person*, *gender*, and agree thus with the nominative case.

If indeed the verb, like the *adjective*, be considered by itself, abstractedly from any relation to the agent, it is *indefinite*, that is, of no number, person, gender—for which reason there is no absolute necessity for such agreement in nature: this is one cause of difference in languages.

1. The verb can express but one action,
though

though its agents may be many ; hence it may stand singular with a nominative case plural.

2. The personal pronouns may stand at length ; and then there is no necessity to express them by a variation of the verb.

3. Verbs, being of no sex, need not be suited to the gender of the noun.

Besides these accidents of number, person and gender there are other, peculiar to the verb, such as

First, The time in which an action is doing and done, called

Tense, *Tempus*.

An action may be spoken of as doing, done, or to be doing and done either *definitely*, that is, in a determinate time present, past and future, or *indefinitely*, that is, in no set time.

First, *Doing* definitely in a time present, or with continuation, as, I am reading, I do very often, usually read ; in a time past, as, I was reading yesterday, when you came in, I have been reading two hours ; I was like, ready to fall, in danger of falling : *doing* indefinitely in a time future, as, I am about, going to read, shall, will read, that is, some time hence.

Secondly,

Secondly, *done* definitely in a time present, as, I have read the book and finished it this instant ; in a time past, as, I read it yesterday ; *done* indefinitely, as, I have read it, that is, sometime ago, I had read it, that is, preceding another action, as, before you came in : definitely future, I shall have read it by or before to-morrow morning ; I read it after I came in, or I came in and read it, that is, future to a preceding action. The Lord said, "let there be light, and there was light," that is, light arose subsequent to the command ; light was future in the order of time, and is so expressed in the original by the verb standing in the future tense.

Simply and in nature there can be only three sorts of time, and consequently but three tenses ; which being multiplied will produce six, or nine, more or less : hence another cause of difference in languages. The general number and names with us are five ; the *present* wherein the action is doing ; *past imperfect* or *preterimperfect*, was doing, had been usually doing, began, or was likely, to be done, and not finished ; *past perfect* or *preterperfect*, is done and finished in a time past and present ; *pluperfect*, done in a past time

F

before

before another action ; future, definite and indefinite.

Secondly, Another accident is the mode, that is, manner of an action, called

Mood *Modus*

1. A Verb may *indicate*, declare an action with certainty and positiveness ; as, *the Sun is, was setting ; is, was, hath been set ; will set* : this is speaking in the

Indicative *Indicativus*

2. It may carry in it a command ; as, *Sun, stand thou still* : this is speaking in the

Imperative *Imperativus*

3. It may not be *indicative* and *imperative*, but *subjoined* with an uncertainty, a doubt, wish, request—as, *if the Sun set—it is necessary that it set—perhaps it may set—I wish it may or may it set—please or pray give*—This is speaking in the

Subjunctive, Potential, Optative.
Subjunctivus, Potentialis, Optativus,

In

In nature there is no occasion for these moods ; because they are determined by particles and verbs subjoined.

4. A Verb may be indefinite as to number, person—used very much in the sense of a *Noun* ; as, boys love *to play* or *love play* ; it is pleasant *to see* the Sun, or *the sight* of the Sun is pleasant ; a child is pleased *to see*, *in*, *by*, *at*, *with* seeing its nurse, that is, with the sight of its nurse : This is using the Verb in its origin, fountain, or radix ; which *Mood* is called

Infinitive	<i>Infinitivus</i>
and	&
Gerunds	<i>Gerundi</i>

The structure of a Verb in its different accidents and variations is called conjugating it, or its

Conjugation, *conjugatio*, from *conjungo* to join together.

In English *Number* and *Person* are expressed by *Nouns* and *Pronouns* without a change in the Verb, except in the second and third person *Singul. Indic. Mood*.

Note, When *you* is used, in the familiar style and
polite

polite discourse, instead of *thou*, in the solemn and authoratative; no change is made in the second person.

Tenses and *Moods* are commonly expressed by assisting Verbs, therefore named *Auxiliary*; as, *am, do, did, have, had, shall, will, let, may, might, could, would, should*.

The forms of Verbs are called active and passive

Voices

Voces

The active voice is that, in which the noun before the Verb *acteth*, or is an *Agent*; and, if the action *pass* from the Agent to a Patient, as, I love him, the Verb is said to be

Active, or Transitive, *Transitivum*:

But if the action *rest* in the Agent, neither acting upon nor passive of another, then the Verb is said to be neuter, intransitive, *Neutrum, Intransitivum*; as, I go, walk.

Note, From Verbs, that is to say, from the present and past *Tenses*, arise *Verbal Adjectives*; which

which *participate* the nature of a *Noun* and a *Verb* : hence named,

Participles, active and passive, or present and past.

It will be very useful to introduce the learner to the regular forms of Verbs by one esteemed irregular ; yet of general use in all languages, either as an auxiliary, or to affirm quality, state, *existence* ; hence called.

V E R B S U B S T A N T I V E .

I N D I-

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Singular.**Plural.*

Pres. Tens. I am, thou art, he is : We, ye, you, they
are.

Past. Imp. I, he was, thou wast : We, ye, you, they
were.

Perf. I have, thou hast, he hath been : We, ye, you, they
have been :

Plu. perf. I, he had, thou hadst been : We, ye, you, they
had been.

Future I, he shall, will be ; We, ye, you, they
Imperfect. thou shalt, wilt be ; shall, will be ; are
I am to be ; am ready, to be ; ready, like-
likely, about, going ly, about, going, to
to be : be.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Be ; be thou, he, ye, you, they ; let me, him,
us, them, be.

INFINITIVE MOOD

Pres. or Act. To be :

Passive, To have been.

GERUNDS

With, in, by, being ; having been.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. or Act. Being :

Passive, Having been.

SUBJUNC-

SUBJUNCTIVE, OPTATIVE, POTENTIAL MOODS.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Pres.</i>	If I, thou, he, be ; I, he, we, ye, you, they may be ; that thou mayest be:	be.
<i>Imper.</i>	I, he, we might, would, could, should be, thou mightest be ; if I, (he were, or were I ; O ! that thou wert.	
<i>Perf.</i>	If thou, he, she have been.	
<i>Plup.</i>	If I had been, or had I been, without <i>if</i> .	
<i>Future Perf.</i>	I shall have been ; as, I shall have been there and back again by the time you return ; which is a Subjunctive form of speaking.	

Note, The Verb Substantive and Auxiliaries are often omitted, particularly in poetry ;

—————Cruel his eye, but cast
Signs of remorse,—————

that is, cruel was his eye, but did cast. Milton.

ACTIVE

ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense Imperfect. I love, do love him; am in love with him; I dine to day at—am at dinner; I read, am reading; thou (doest love) lovest, art in love; he (doeth, doth love) loveth, loves, is in love; I go, come, am going, we, ye, you, they (do) love, move, are in love, in motion.

Past Imperfect. I, he was, thou wast in love; we, ye, you, they were reading; I, he, we, ye, you, they loved, did love; thou lovedst, didst love.

Perfect. I, we, ye, they have dined, loved, been in love; thou hast dined, loved, been in love.

Pluperfect. I, he, we, ye, you, they had dined; thou hadst dined, loved, been in love.

Future Imperfect. I, he, we, you, they shall, will love, dine; thou shalt, wilt love, be in love.

Imperative Mood.

Love; love thou, ye; let me, us, them, go.

Infinitive. *Pres. Tense.* *Perfect.*
To love; to have loved.

Gerunds. In, with, by loving, having loved.

Participles. *Pres. Act.* *Perf.* *Future.*
Loving; having loved; about to love.

SUBJUNCTIVE, OPTATIVE, POTENTIAL MOOD.

Pres- If I, thou, he, we, ye, you, they love, come.
I, he, we may, thou mayest love.

Imper- If I, he, we might, thou mightest love.

Perf- If I, he, she, we, ye, have loved, heard.

Plup- When, after I had heard, read.

Fut. perf- I shall have loved, if he shall, or, should he come.

The English have a double future not unlike the Spanish; the one positive and absolute, the other conditional, a kind of subjunctive: in the old English writers *shall* is of general use, and in all cases of certainty; but *will* only for mere volition, somewhat differing from the modern use and sense.

Thus in Ascham's Schoolmaster pag. 4 and 5. *Upton edit.* " I know by good experience, that a
 " child *shall* take more profit of two faults gently
 " warned of, than of four things rightly hit; for
 " then the master *shall* have good occasion to say —
 " which after this sort the master *shall* teach without
 " error and the scholar *shall* learn without great pain:"
 here the moderns for *shall* would use *will*; though *shall* doth not in either of these passages imply (as in the present acceptation) any force of an exterior power upon the will of the subject; but only a certainty of event: the same is observable throughout the Bible, in reading of which, this ancient usage and sense of the future, and not the modern should be attended to, and then *shall* will not (as it is apt to do) excite any wrong conceptions of God, as if it implied the exertion of his power upon a subject, forcing it to do so and so; as in Matt. xxiii. 34. xxiv. 10. Act. iii. 2.

The modesty, politeness and submission of the subjunctive mood serve to abate the positiveness of the indicative, and to soften the peremptoriness of the imperative.

These

These moods were carefully distinguished by the first English writers, who with *if*, *unless*, *except*, *lest*, *that*, *though*, *if so be*, *untill*, and some other particles, always used the verb in the second and third person singular without any change. “ If *thou* love learning, thou shalt attain much learning. Though a child *have* all the gifts of nature — if a child *have* all the benefits of nature, yet if he *be* not himself painful, he shall never attain unto it ” Ascham’s Schoolmaster pag. 26. 7. see Gen. xiii. 22. xlii. 15. Num. xvi. 13. Lev. xxii. 6. John. xii. 24. 1 Sam. ix. 13.

The author of the Short Introduction page 135, supposes the latter verb after *bid*, *dare*, *make*, and some other verbs, to stand in the infinitive mood without its sign *to*, contrary to the general rule; but this seems not to be the case. These verbs may rather be supposed to stand in the imperative, subjunctive, or some other form; as, I bade him do it, come, go, run, that is, I bade him, made him, saying, do it—I saw him do it, heard him say it, that is, doing, saying, or when he did, said it, not saw him *to* do, *to* say it “. These are phrases merely discursive, sometimes elliptical, and sometimes redundant, as any one will find by turning them into Latin, depending upon the preceding sentence, or some word understood, for their grammatical construction; though sometimes it may be difficult, if not impossible to reduce common speech to rule, and indeed it is beneath a grammarian’s attempt.

All verbs are resolvable into the verb substantive with a participle.

In English every verb may be and usually is resolved with a *participle active*, as, I read, go, come, am reading, going, coming, I was reading; and with a *participle passive* by a turn of the whole sentence, used sometimes for variety, and sometimes for brevity by omitting the agent, as, "I have, had been, shall be loved by him; the world was created by God, instead of he loved me, God created the world, or, he is greatly beloved, the world was created, it is said, I was told, the house is builded," without specifying by whom.

The formation of the TENSES.

In the variations of words all languages seem to regard pronunciation and sound rather than regularity, and on no occasion more than in the formation of the tenses: every language from a natural hurry and demand of the ear admits of contractions and changes in speaking, and pronunciation introduceth the same into writing. The first and most simple tense is the present,
and

and from this are formed the other tenses according to some particular letter or letters, which characterize the tense ; hence called

Characteristick, *characteristica*.

In English the perfect tense and the participle passive regularly end in *ed*, as love loved ; but irregularly in *d*, *t*, *n* by contraction, change, or addition, as, heard, read, mixt, put, for heared, readed mixed, putted ; grew grown, shone, did, done, for growed, shined, doed, as in the present tense doth, does, loves, for doeth, loveth.

The following are all the irregular verbs in English, whose perfect tense and participle passive may easily be formed and remembered by attending to the characteristick letter, in the present tense.

<i>Pres. Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>Part. Passiva.</i>
<i>d, t, p</i> changed into <i>t</i>		<i>t</i>
Lend, send, spend, gild, build; put, shut, slip.	Lent, sent, spent, gilded or gilt, builded or built, put, shut, slipped or slipt.	The same as the perfect.

<i>ow, aw.</i>	<i>ew.</i>	<i>n</i>
Blow, grow, throw, mow, fow, show or shew; draw, saw: go, come.	Blew, grew, threw, mowed, fowed, showed, or shewed; drew, sawed: went, came.	Blown, grown, thrown, mown, sown, shown; drawn, fawn: gone, come.

Long vowels and diphthongs changed into short.

<i>a</i>	<i>ee</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>n</i>
Fall; bleed, breed, speed; keep, creep, weep; feel, meet; flee, fly, fee.	Fell; bled, bred, sped; kept, crept, wept; felt, met; fled, saw.	Fallen or faln, flown, seen.		

<i>ea long</i>	<i>e short, a, o long</i>	<i>en</i>
Lead, read, bear; sweare, wear, tear; leave; cleave; eat, beat; break; speak; take, shake, forsake; make; heave; grave; steal; help, get.	Led, read, bare or bore; sware or swore, wore, tore; left; clave or clove; ate, beat; brake or broke; spake, spoke, took, shook, forfook, made; heaved, hove; graved; stole; holp, got.	Borne; sworn, worn, torn; cloven; eaten, beaten; broken, spoken, taken, shaken, for- faken, graven, stolen, holpen, gotten.

i dip-

i diphthong with e final. i short, o long en

Abide,	hide,	Abid or abode,	Hidden, chidden,
chide ;	ride,	hid, chid,	ridden, bidden ;
slide, bid, write,		chode; slid,	written, bitten ;
bite ; rise, drive,		bid or bad ;	risen ; driven ;
thrive, strive ;		writ or wrote,	stricken.
strike.		bit ; rose ;	
		drove, throve,	
		strove ; stroke,	
		strook, struck.	

i diphthong before na. ou

Bind, find, grind.	Round, found,
	ground.

i, a, u short.

a, u short.

un.

Begin ; sing, sting,	Began ; sung,	Begun ; drunken ;
string ; spin,	stung, strung ;	
spring ; swim,	spun, sprung ;	
win ; drink ;	swam, swang or	
shrink ; sit, spit ;	swung, wun ;	
hang, run.	drank or	
	drunk ; shrank	
	or shrank ; fat,	
	spat, hung, ran	spitted.
	or run.	

The

The following verbs have *ought*; *ought* in the perfect and participle passive.

Buy, bring, catch, teach, fight, owe, seek, think, work; bought, brought, caught, taught, fought, ought, fought, wrought.

It is proper for the reader to be told, that this scheme of forming the tenses was given in the Introduction to languages, lest he should suppose it to be taken from the Short Introduction to grammar; though indeed the authors of neither the first nor second work have a right to any merit except perhaps from an improvement in the arrangement of irregular verbs; the original claim is due to Dr. Johnson, whom no succeeding grammarian nor lexicographer ought to pass by without paying him a tribute of reverence: the remarks on the improper use of the past tense and participle passive in the Short Introduction deserve attention.

The PASSIVE VOICE.

In the passive voice the agent and patient change situations or cases, the noun before the verb instead of an agent becoming
a pati-

a patient, and the noun governed by the verb instead of the patient being the agent; hence the verb is said to be

Passive, *passivum*, from *patior*

to suffer or to be patient.

In English the passive voice is always expressed by the verb substantive with a participle passive, as, I am, thou art, he is, we, ye, you, they are beloved, told; I, he was, thou wast, we, ye, you, they were beloved, told; I have, had, thou hast, hadst, he hath, had, we, ye, you, they have, had been told; I, he, we, ye, you, they shall, thou shalt be told.

The English is very defective in the present and imperfect tenses, which are used in the sense of the perfect, as, the house is, was built; the book is, was read; the work is finished; he is gone out.

To help this defect is used the active participle; as, the house is building—but this, Dr. Johnson saith, is a vicious expression, for, the house is a building.

THE RELATIONS, or PARTICLES,

CALLED

PREPOSITIONS.

A, at, of, off, from, out of, to, for, against, by, through, with, fore before, hind behind, after, nigh, near, past, beyond, over, above, below, on, in, under.

A relates to place and situation like *in*, *on*, as, he is a bed, a board, a foot, and to state and time like *by*, as, five pounds a yard, a year, that is, by the yard, year.

At, of nearly the same signification with *a*, relates to place, time or state, as, at London, at the end of the week, at peace.

To, *for*, specify an action done in favour, to the purpose of, but *against*, in disfavour, to the prejudice of a person, thing or place, as, God gave *to* man the fruits of the ground *for* food, and the revelation of his will to guide him *to* heaven, directing him *to* the good, and warning him *against* the evil.

Of relates chiefly to the property and possession of a substance, as, man is the work *of* God.

Over, *above*, *below*, *on*, *in*, *under*, relate to place, de.

describing different degrees of situation, *as*, over head, above the heavens, below the clouds, *on*, *in*, under the earth.

Off, *from*, *out of*, contrary to *of*, *to*, *for*, *in*, *on*, note deprivation, *as*, driven *off*, *from* the land, *out of* the house.

Before, *behind*, *after*, relate to place and time, contrary the one to the other, *as*, *before* the face, *behind* the back; *before* sun rising, *after* sun setting.

Nigh, *near*, *past*, *beyond*, relate to time and situation, in opposition to each other, *as*, *nigh*, *near*, *past*, *beyond* the river; *near* the hour.

By, *with* relate to person and thing, expressive of instrumentality and connection, *by* and *with* which an action is done; *as*, the sun was created *by* God to enlighten the world *with* his rays.

These prepositions, placed in separation before nouns, are also used in composition, sometimes prefixed, and sometimes affixed, to substantives, adjectives and verbs, bearing the same sense in both situations, that is to say, are *negative*, or *affirmative*, *take from*, or *add to*, *diminish*, or *augment* the simple signification: hence they are said to be

Privative, *privativa*.

Intensive, *intensiva*.

A, probably an abbreviation of the Latin preposition *ad* to, originally, but more immediately the French *a*, prefixed to nouns, is intensive, as, *afront*, *aside*, that is, *in* front, *to* the side; *aground*, as the ship is aground, stuck *on* or *to* the ground; *aloft*, high, up *to* the loft or uppermost floor; *amidst*, in the middle; *alive*, *in* life and spirits; *alarm*, a call to arms; pref. to verbs is also mostly intens. as, *arouse*, *awake*, which bespeak the attention with more vehemence than *rise*, *wake*; so *abate*, *abide*, *accurse*, *amend*: but *a* is privative, of *ab* from, in *avert*, *away*, that is, turn from, out of the way.

A hath a still more eminent use, that of forming verbs active, to be explained in its place.

Com *con* intens. from the Latin *cum* with, as, *compare*, that is, to pair, put one thing with another, like with like; *confirm*, that is, make one thing firm in conjunction with, or by the help of another.

Un, *in*, *im*, pref. to subst. and adj. priv. as, gratitude ingratitude, worthy unworthy, constant inconstant, patient impatient: *in*, *en*, *im*, *em*, mostly intens. before verbs and participles, as, *inforce*, *enthrone*, *implant*, *empower*, that is, force in, place on the throne, plant in, invest with power.

Ab, *e*, *ex*, *de*, *di*, these Latin prepositions signifying off, from, out of, and *dis*, *mis*, prefixed to verbs and nouns, are privative mostly, as, *absolve* to set free from; *eject* to cast or put out of; *expell* to drive out; *deject* to cast down; *divest* to strip off, deprive; ho-

honour *dis*honour; fortune *mis*fortune. Note, *off*, *out*, *in*, *on*, *over* are frequently subjoined to verbs, as, leave *off*, come *on*, *off*, *out*, *in*; fall, give, *over*. *With*, *over*, *under*, *fore*, are also prefixed, as, withdraw, overlook, undertake; *fore* is an abbreviation sometimes of *from*, but oftener of *before*; as, forego, that is, go from; foresee, that is, see before hand.

Besides the four preceding moods, there are three other circumstances, which may be considered as modifications of the same verb.

First, The inducing, procuring, employing, empowering, any way causing another to do an action. An agent may move, sit, walk, live, die; in short, do any action himself; or he may cause another to do it by a transition, as it were, of the action from himself to the other; forcing him, giving power, means, assistance, commission to perform it; this may be named *transitive*.

Secondly, The returning of an action upon the agent; as, he hid *himself*—they looked *one upon another*—walked *together*, *with one another*—here the verb is said to be *reciprocal*: a circumstance similar to this is the often repeating an action, making it, as it were, return upon itself; as he walked, ran, *backwards and forwards*, to
and

and fro, over and over, round about, again and again—here the verb is said to be *frequentative*.

Thirdly, amplifying, heightening and certifying an action, as it were, giving it degrees; thus, let the waters bring forth *abundantly* or *in abundance*—I will *greatly* multiply thy sorrows—thou shalt *surely and miserably* die—This may be named *amplificative*.

These circumstances, continually attending upon the verb in all languages, might be expressed by the same verb under a new form, without calling in the assistance of other verbs and particles.

Transitive.

Note, In this form, verbs neuter become active; and verbs active do not merely act upon another, but render the patient an agent; expressed

First, by the same verb, being both active and neuter; as, the horse walks, moves, runs, or I walk, move, run the horse.

Secondly, by the verb under a new form, otherwise called *derivative*; as, to lie, sit, rise, act, be weak, quick, little; lay, set, raise, actuate, weaken, quicken, lessen, that is, to make another lie, sit, rise, act, weak, quick, little. Thirdly

Thirdly, by the prepositions *a*, *en*, prefixed, as, *assure*, to make sure; *ascertain*, to make certain; *abase*, to make base or low, humble; *allot*, give a lot; *amaze*, to confuse or astonish, as it were, put in a maze or labyrinth; *enable* to make able: but, the most usual way is by other verbs; as, he *made*, *caused* the horse to move, walk, go, run, in, out, or he *led*, *brought* him in, out; he *made* him eat, drink, die, or *fed*, *gave* him meat, drink, *killed*, *put* him to death.

PARTICIPLES and ADJECTIVES

Frequently carry a transitive, otherwise called, *metaphorical* sense; as, gloomy shades, joyfull spring, pleasing fields, proud palaces, that is, exciting gloominess, pleasure, joy, pride.

RECIPROCAL and FREQUENTATIVE.

In this form the same noun is both agent and patient; and the verb may be said to be active and passive, or to be in the middle voice, between active, passive, and neuter: *reciprocal* is expressed by the reciprocal pronouns, and *frequentative*, by adverbs, as, he ran *up* and *down*, walked *about*, *continually*, with *perseverance*.

AMPLI-

AMPLIFICATIVE is expressed

First, generally by adverbs, or by nouns used adverbially, as, I rejoice greatly, with all my heart; wait patiently, with patience, quietness.

Secondly, often by a repetition of the same verb; by addition of one synonymous, or its own noun: of this kind are some very fine amplifications in our liturgy; as, in the litany, *favourably, with mercy* hear our prayer; *graciously* hear us, O Christ, *graciously* hear us O Lord Christ: in the communion, *have mercy upon us, have mercy upon us,—we praise thee, we bless thee, we worship thee, we glorify thee, we give thanks to thee—O Lord, the only begotten son Jesu Christ; O Lord God, Lamb of God, son of the father, that takest away the sins of the world, have mercy upon us; thou that takest away the sins of the world, have mercy upon us; thou that takest away the sins of the world, hear our prayer; thou that sittest at the right hand of the father, have mercy upon us.*

O F D E R I V A T I O N .

The parts of speech are not only analogous but like the cognate letters even change into each other : verbs change into nouns, and nouns into verbs, preserving the same termination and pronunciation ; nouns also are derived from verbs with some variation, adjectives from substantives, and substantive and verbs from adjectives ; adverbs of time are used as nouns, so are participles active, called therefore *participial* nouns ; participles passive are used as adjectives, and may be named *participial adjectives* ; lastly, simples form compounds : in this manner words flow from words, as streams from a fountain, or grow as branches from a *radix*, or root.

This inquiry, with respect to the English language, is pursued by Dr. Johnston so extensively, that I shall think myself sufficiently honoured, if I can illustrate his observations, and reduce his abundance, without presuming, what he promiseth for Dr. Wallis, to rectify his errors, and supply his defects.

First, Some nouns and verbs are the same, as, to
I love

love, *love*; to fright, a *fright*; to fight, a *fight*; to fish, a *fish*; to oyl, *oyl*.

Secondly, Nouns are changed into verbs with a change in the pronunciation of a letter, or accent, as, a house, *to house*; use, *to use*; where the *s* in the verb is pronounced as *z*, and might be so written, as it is in *to braze, to glaze, to graze, to prize*: a record, *to record*; a present, *to present*; here the accent makes the difference.

Thirdly, Nouns are derived from verbs either through the present tense, or the preterite, with some variation, as, *lover, giver*, that is, he who loveth, giveth; a *stroke*, that which is struck.

Fourthly, Adjectives are derived from substantives by adding the termination *y*, intensive, as, worth *worthy*, wood *woody*, air *airy*; *ful*, as, joy *joyful*; *some*, as, delight *delightsome*; *less*, privative, as, worth *worthless*; shape *shapeless*; *like*, or *ly*, intens. as *godlike* or *godly*; *y*, as, might, *mighty*; also *ly* added to adjectives forms adverbs, as, *mighty, mightily*; great, *greatly*: but if the adjective end in *ly*, as, godly, holy, the adjective is used adverbially, the ear not admitting the repetition *ly*, godlily, holily.

“Adjectives, says the Short Introd. p. 156. are sometimes employed as adverbs improperly, and not agreeably to the genius of the English language.” What the custom and usage of a language may be, it is easy to determine, but not what is the *genius* of any language. Ge-

Genius is born with us, the gift of nature, and is fixed ; but language is a thing which changes, and is acquired. Certainly the ear, which will overrule judgement and theory, taught the use of some adjectives as adverbs without the adverbial termination, and custom hath introduced others, as, *very*, *mighty*, *right*, *excessive*, *exceeding*, joined with adjectives, as, *very*, *excessive*, good ; *mighty* great ; *right* honourable ; *prodigious* cold ; *exceeding* fair : it is observable that *exceedingly* is always joined with a verb, and *exceeding* with adjectives. What now has genius to say ? indeed some of the instances produced seem highly improper, but not “ *marvelous*,” which is a real adjective standing independently, and “ *worthy to be praised* ” is added as an amplification, “ *marvelous, worthy to be praised* ; ” so, “ *the poor, destitute* ” Psal. 102, meaning, the poor to such a degree as to be destitute. This manner of using adjectives is very animated and frequent, not only in the sacred writings, but also in the profane : An adjective with a participle is used adverbially in the nature of a compound, as, *sweet-smelling*.

Fifthly, of concrete adjectives are made abstract substantives by adding the terminations *ness*, as, *great* *greatness* ; *ity*, as, *able*, *ability* ; *th*, partly from adjectives, and partly from verbs, as, *high*, *height*, so pronounced, but written by contraction

height, long, *length*; strong, *strength*; die, *death*; grow, *growth*.

Nouns in *th* from verbs come generally through the preterite, like an effect from a cause, as, *breath*, health, birth, the effect of *breathing*, *healing*, *bearing*, or that which is *breathed*, *healed*, *beared*, *born*; the medius *d* changed into the aspirate *th*.

Words ending in *te* are either verbs, or participial adjectives; of the verbs some are *transitive*, and some *frequentative*, as, *to actuate*, that is, cause, or influence another to act; *agitate*, to drive about, here and there; *compassionate*, *situate*, *complete*, *replete*, *devote*, *remote*, these with many others are used as adjectives. Some of these participial adjectives, (as rightly observed in the Short Introduction p. 151) are more allowably used in poetry than in prose, and are sometimes very improperly used with the auxiliaries instead of the real participle; as, had *dedicate*, ii Sam. 8. 11. 2 Kings xii. 18, for had *dedicated*, were *incorporate*, for incorporated.

To pursue this inquiry any farther would be to write a Dictionary rather than a Grammar.

SYN.

SYNTAX.

WORDS are either literal or figurative; so is language. Words are said to be literal, when used according to their plain, primary sense; and figurative, when they carry a secondary meaning, ornamented and enlivened by some turn or allusion; and the construction of a sentence is figurative, when it departs from common forms and general rules.

As letters are dropped, or changed in words by hasty utterance, or to please the ear, so from the rapidity of thought, and vehemence of the passions words are omitted in sentences; which omission gives one occasion of figurative speech, and is called

ELLIPSIS, from the Greek verb *ελλειπω*, that is, to leave out or omit, and the word so omitted is said to be elliptical or understood.

The

The ellipsis occurs more frequently than any other figure, in every sentence, even the most simple.

The first and most simple sentence is that, which consists of a noun before the verb in the nominative case, as, the sun shineth, and after it in the accusative, as, God made man.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

RULES.

1st. Every verb must have before it a noun either expressed or understood, and agree with it in number and person.

The sun shineth, is risen; the horses run, are running: it rains, it snows.

Here in the first sentence the nouns *sun*, *horse*, are expressed before the verbs *shine*, *rise*, *run*, but in the second no nouns are expressed before the verbs *to rain*, *to snow*, which are elliptical; and for that reason the verbs are said to be *impersonal*.

It and *there* frequently stand before verbs, as relatives to some thing or person understood: *it* is warm, that is, the weather, air, or season is warm; *it* is a cold day, for the day is cold; *it*, referring to the thing spoken of, is good: *there* is no propriety in this, for no propriety is in this; *there* is, that scattereth and yet increaseth; *there* are, who say—When the noun is placed after the verb, particularly the verb substantive, *there*, as an expletive, not as a local adverb, commonly stands before the verb instead of the nominative case, as, there went up a mist, for a mist went up; let there be light, and there was light, for let light be, and light was.

2d. When two or more nouns, both singular, or one plural, and the other singular, come before a verb, the verb is usually made plural; but it may stand singular by situation next to one noun singular, or by being taken distributively.

Nothing is wanting here but verses, or, nothing but verses are wanting: the wages of sin is death: David and Samuel go, or then David goeth, and Samuel, or then goeth David and Samuel: I and my people are wicked, or I am wicked, and my people: "thy silver and thy gold is mine, 2. Kings, ii. 3. where
rust

rust and moth doth corrupt, " Mat. vi. 19. that is, each is mine, each doth corrupt.

3d. Nouns collective, otherwise called nouns of number or multitude, also a noun with a numeral adjective, these imply a plural sense without a plural termination, and the reverse, a singular with the plural sign; with such nouns a verb may stand singular or plural.

Part is, or are gone; the multitude cometh, or come together.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

1st. Every verb active must have after it an accusative case; no verb neuter can have an accusative, but may a dative or ablative.

God created the heavens and the earth.

2d. When two nouns come after a verb, only one can be said properly to follow the verb; the other is governed by a preposition understood.

The man asked me a question, my opinion, that is, as to a question, as to my opinion, or of me a question.

The

The preposition is often elliptical in English, and often expressed, as, he asked me for my vote; he gave me money, or gave money to me.

Thirdly, not only nouns and participles are elliptical, but the verb; and even the conclusion of a sentence is on some occasions elegantly left to be supplied by the imagination of the hearer and reader.

“ My head, my head !” 2 Kings. ix. 19 (understood) aches, or pains me : “ who ? where is he ? Gen. 27. 32. that is, who was the person : my kingdom for a horse, that is, I would give my kingdom; or in the civil form, my compliments to—that is, give or present my compliments : “ if it bear fruit— Luke xiii. 9. to whom I swear in my wrath, if they shall enter into my rest—.” Psalms xcv. 11. Luk. 19. 42.

Fourthly, when two or more nouns come before the verb, or follow it, suspending the sense too long, it is then elegant, because emphatick and effecting perspicuity, to add the pronoun, or to complete the sense with one noun, and repeat the pronoun with the other nouns after the verb.

K

“ I

“ I and my people *we* are wicked, or I am wicked, I and *my* people : I only and Barnabas have not *w* power to forbear working? the seventh day is the sabbath of the Lord thy God; in it thou shalt do no manner of work, *thou* and thy *son*, and thy *daughter*?—in the absolution “almighty God” is the nominative case before the verb, “pardoneth” but lying at a great distance from it by the interruption of other words, the pronoun “he” is added; so in the prayer of St. Chrysostom, “almighty God” in the vocative case, being separated by the intervening sentences from the verb “fulfill” is added “O Lord:” he put me in prison, *me* and the chief *baker*; he cast them into the den of lions, *them*, their *wives*, and *children*.”

This kind of construction occurs continually in the scriptures.

As the deficiency of a word by omission is called ellipsis, so on the contrary the abundance by addition, or repetition is called,

Pleonasm, πλεονασμος, redundancy or fulness.

THE GENITIVE CASE.

The genitive, implying possession even after a verb, cannot properly be said to be governed of the verb, but of some noun understood.

The

The earth is the Lord's, that is, the right of the Lord: whose book is this, that is, the book or property of whom is this? virtue is of great reward, that is, a thing of great reward: I regard, value not the book of a farthing, that is, at the price of a farthing: he accused me of theft, that is, with or as to the crime of theft.

Of after many verbs is governed of *part* understood, or hath the sense of *from*, *concerning*, answering to the Latin prepositions *ab*, *a*, *de*, *ex*; as, to eat of, make of, compose of, hear of, think of, drive out of.

THE DATIVE.

This case, like the accusative, is the object or patient of the verb, but with this difference, that the verb conveyeth to the *donee* or receiver some use, benefit, injury.

The master gave, promised, lent, sent me a book, that is, for me, for my use; it pleaseth me well, that is, resolving the verb, it is pleasing to me.

THE ABLATIVE.

This case specifieth the *instrument, cause, time, place; by, with, in* which an action is done: also the *matter-from, out of* which any thing is effected.

The master gave me a book *with* his own hand *in* the school: God created the world *by* his power *in* six days; *from, out of* darkness brought he light, when he said, let there be light, and there was light

In English the prepositions, which are signs of the dative and ablative cases, are often omitted particularly in poetry, as, "woe is me, well is thee," that is, woe, well is *to* me, thee, or, it is woe *to* me, it is well *for, with* thee.

——Fall'n such a pernicious height,
that is, *from* such a pernicious height: Milt. so he says, swam the ocean stream—ride the air, for *in, cross, over,* the ocean stream, *on* the air. Had Smith the translator of Longinus attended to this liberty taken by our writers, he would not have said, (p. 114) "that the latter part of the second verse of Psalm 128 "oh! well is thee" transgresses against the rules of grammar, for *well art thou,*
and

and called it a beautiful disorder, that does honour to the translators ;" a beauty, honour and disorder which they certainly never intended any more than many poets, to whom commentators have ascribed faults and beauties, which have existence only in their own imagination. Here I am happy to join issue with the judgement of the author of the Short Introduction (132) though he is for justifying this, and the like phrases by having recourse to the Saxon; which I should apprehend there is no occasion to do any more than to the Hebrew, of which "well is thee" is a strict translation, or to the Latin, *bene est tibi*.

Adjectives, participles and nouns require a construction resembling that of verbs.

1. Adjectives, implying *possession* and *deprivation*, govern mostly a genitive, sometimes an ablative.

Greedy of gain, worthy of honour; pale with anger, rich in lands, powerful in arms, blessed with genius, deprived of right.

2. Adjectives, implying *benefit* and *injury*, require a dative case.

Good, useful, pernicious, to the publick, to the state; fit for war.

After

After adjectives the preposition is often suppressed in poetry.

Oh worthy better fate!—Popes Ill. book 11, line 311.

Participles govern the same as their verbs.

Participial nouns, taking the definite article, govern the same as a noun, the latter of two substantives in the genitive case, as, *the lending of* money is frequently attended with loss, a man by *the lending of* money often suffers; but without the article it is a real participle, and should govern like the verb, as, a man lending money or by lending money often suffers; this distinction is very properly remarked in the Short Introduction page 112.

Nouns expressive of *measure, height, depth, length, width, time*, stand with an adjective, or verb, in a manner *absolute*, sometimes in the genitive and sometimes in the ablative, or accusative.

A book an *inch*, that is, *of* one inch, wide; a well thirty *feet* deep, that is, *in, as to*, feet; a house three *stories* high, a *mile* from town; I promised to stay in the country but five *days*; defer not an *hour* to mend your faults; put it
not

not off *year* after year, or from year to year; I have been absent the whole *month* of August.

*Nine times the space, that measures day and night
To mortal man, he lay unvanquished.*

MILTON.

There is an elegant construction of one noun after another in the dative and ablative cases, peculiar to the English language, effected partly by the use of nouns for verbs and participles, and partly by the use of the ellipsis.

“ He did it in compliance *with* my request, in conformity *to* or *with* the will of God,” that is, *to comply*, or *in complying with—to conform to*, or *that he might comply, conform—to* reasons for the preservation of religion,” that is, *offered, brought, urged for—to* An attention *to* the publick good, a regard *for* truth, an eye *to* the interest of ones country, a concern *for* virtue, and a zeal *for* religion, these are the noblest principles of action,” that is, *paid to* the publick, *had to*, for truth, or, *to be attentive to* the publick, *to regard* truth, *to have an eye to, a concern for* : “ a man *under* the influence of passion and prejudice, *out of, from* pique or resentment, will sacrifice humanity, his life and fortune to an opinion, or party,” that is, *labour-*
ing

ing under, *acting* from: “ it may be justly said, that a selfish man is an enemy to his country, without any scurrility or reflection *upon* his person, and derogation *from* truth,” that is, *cast* upon, and *derogating* from.

This kind of construction will be found every where in Swift and the Spectators, sometimes indeed incorrect, from an inattention to the nature of the verb, or participle, for which the noun is used, and to the ellipsis.

Sometimes the second noun may be put in the genitive, as, a regard of truth, a love of God, an observance of, an aversion of——“ to have an aversion to, or, be averse to, ” is the usual phrase, and may be justified by supplying the prepositions, *with regard to*, or, *respect to*, though derivation from the Latin be brought by the Short Introduction to plead for “ averse from ; ” which is seldom found, and only once in the Bible, Mic. ii. 8. “ as men averse from : ” Swift indeed uses *from* always.

The phrase comes to us through the French ; which says, to have an aversion *de* of, *pour* for, *a* to a thing or person, or to have a thing *en*, in aversion.

There is another phrase, “ to live, lead, act, behave, speak, walk, *suitably*, *agreeable*, *to* ; to write *previous to*, *consistent*, *inconsistent*, *with*, ” which the same author would correct by substituting the adverbs, *suitably to*, *inconsistently with*, in the place of the

the adjectives *suitable*—The adjective here is put neutrally, or elliptically, the substantive being secreted in the verb, as, live, lead a *life*, act a *part*, behave in a *manner*, *sort*, speak *words*, walk in a *way* suitable to; *write* in a *time* previous to—this supply justifies the use of the adjective form rather than the adverbial, even though it should be urged, that the adverbial form is usual and preferred by good writers. “ The phrase suitably to—inconsistently with”—would introduce into grammar an unknown construction, that of adverbs governing a dative and ablative case.

Prepositions in compound require the same case as in separation.

A good man *abstains* even from the appearance of evil ; the King *presides* over the people, the mistress *presides* at the table.

In English many compounds are borrowed from the Latin, as, *abstain*, from *teneo* to hold, and *ab* from ; *preside*, from *præ* before, over, at, and *sedeo* to sit, and many are composed of its own roots, as, *uphold*, *outgo*, *forego*, *forgive*, *withdraw*, *undertake*.

L

Besides

Besides this composition by prefixing the preposition, there is another, peculiar to the English, by subjoining it, as, *cast off, up, down; set out, go in, go in unto, come out, come out from among*: This method not only modifies the signification of words, oftentimes with a wildness and equivocation that may be diverting to the natives, though perplexing to foreigners; but also renders the construction difficult and disputable even to our best writers, who do not agree in the use of the preposition before the noun. The author of the Short Introduction frequently undertakes to correct errors of this kind in authors, particularly in Swift; who, with all his excellencies as an easy, familiar writer, it must be confessed is often wanting in grammatical accuracy and oratorical neatness, not from any defect in judgement, but from the rapidity of his imagination, and freedom of his thoughts.

I am at a loss in what class to place compound verbs, whether in that of thoughtless chance, or of judicious accommodation. When I feel an embarrassment in their pronunciation by the increase of syllables, and see prepositions used in separation before the noun of like import to those in composition, I then consider them as an incumbrance and deformity,
similar

similar to that in the cases of substantives; but when they save the use of prepositions, and bring no inconvenience of utterance, I am then inclined to admit them among the ingenuities and ornaments of art.

In English with some compounds the preposition is omitted, as, “forego not a virtuous woman, forgive me my offences,” but in general the preposition is added, as, prevail *upon*, *over*, *against*; introduce *to* or *into*; conform *to* or *with*.—To guide a writer, or speaker, in the proper use of the preposition before a noun after compounds, I would offer this as the safest rule: Reduce the compound to the simple, and you will soon perceive whether any and what preposition is required before the following noun; for instance, *prefer*, *prevail*, of *præ* before, *over*, *upon*, and *fero* to carry; *valeo* to have power: thus it is said, “True policy prefers the public good *before* or *to* private advantage.”—“Cunning too often prevails *over* or *against* honesty.”

INFINITIVE MOOD.

One verb before another stands in the same relation as a noun, when the subject or agent,

in the nominative case; and a verb after a verb, or after a substantive, adjective, or particle, carries the same sense or relation as a noun, when it is the object or patient in the oblique cases: This is the nature of a verb in the infinitive mood and gerunds.

1. “*To rise* early *is* healthful, or it is healthful to rise early, that is, early *rising* *is* healthful:” here the infinitive *to rise* stands as a nominative to the verb *is*. “*That rising* early *is* healthful, *is* certain; *that I have been* in trouble, or *to have been* in trouble *is* good for me, or it is good for me that I have been in trouble: Here the sentence, “That rising early is healthful” stands as the nominative to “*is* certain,” and, “that I have been in trouble” to “*is* good for me.”

2. “A diligent boy loves to read his book—I like to see you; he ordered me *to depart*:” Here the verbs *to read*, *to see*, *to depart*, are said to be the latter of two verbs, and *love*, *like*, *ordered*, the former, that is, each is governed of the preceding verb, or follows it like a noun in the accusative case, the same as, a diligent boy loves the
reading

reading of his book, I like the *sight* of you, he ordered my *departure*; so again, "God made man *to serve* him, I went to Rome *to see* the Vatican library," that is, *for the service, sight of*, or for the end, sake, or purpose of *serving, seeing*—

3. "A desire *to see* Rome brought me hither, that is, a desire *of the sight* of Rome, or of *seeing* Rome—desirous *to see* or *of seeing* Rome I came here—I came home delighted *with, by, in seeing* Rome, that is, with the *sight* of Rome:" Here *to see* after the substantive *desire*, the adjective *desirous*, with *seeing* after the participle *delighted*, stand in the same relation as one noun to another, and to an adjective in the genitive case, or to a participle in the ablative; these are called *Gerunds*. Observe, every verb in the infinitive mood must have some word to govern it either expressed, or understood; and so must every adjective agree with a substantive either expressed or understood: when an adjective stands alone, it is said to be put neutrally, or in the neuter gender; as, to rise early is wholesome, that is, a wholesome *thing*.

Thus

Thus far we have treated of syntax in single sentences; in which the construction being very simple and obvious, it is not easy to commit mistakes: we now proceed to compound sentences, wherein to avoid inaccuracy is required the greatest judgement and attention; for want of which very good writers fall into gross improprieties and defects.

Compound sentences are formed by the help of certain adverbs, relatives and participles.

Adverbs, which form compound sentences, are those (1.) of time, *when, then, so soon as, just as, before, after, afterwards* (2.) of condition and doubt, *if, but if, if so be, if so be that, unless, except, until, lest, though* (3.) of reason, or cause, *that, because, being, as being, seeing, seeing that, since, since that, sith, therefore* (4.) of comparison and likeness, *more than, rather than* (5.) of conjunction and separation, otherwise called connective and disjunctive adverbs; *thus, and, so, though, yet, nevertheless, neither, nor, either, or, but.*

PRONOUNS RELATIVE.

1. A pronoun relative agrees with the antecedent in number and gender ; and, when the agent or in the nominative case, requireth the verb to be in the person of the antecedent.

“ God, *who created and preserves* all things, is wise *and* good ; I, *that speak*, am he : I am the man, *that say*, agreeing with *I*, or *that saith*, agreeing with *man* : Æneas, *who sailed* from Troy *after* it had been taken by the Grecians, in his voyage to Italy went to see Queen Dido, *who* at that time *reigned* at Carthage, *which was* a famous city, *that* afterwards *rivalled* Rome : Just art thou, *who speakest* truth, *and* happy is the man, *who walketh* uprightly : we, *who* once *were* rich, alas, now are poor ; *but though* we are poor, *yet* are we not miserable, *nor* do we envy those, *who are* our superiors : the King and Queen are blessed, *who are* beloved by their subjects : all admire *my* good fortune, (that is, the good fortune of *me*) *who have* so excellent a son.”—These are familiar compound
sen-

sentences, in which may be seen very readily the connective adverbs and the pronouns agreeing with the antecedents in gender and number before the verb, agreeing in person with the antecedent.

“ Labour to put an end to this horrid war; *which* if it can be accomplished, you will do eminent service to your country, and gain immortal honour yourself; I have been waiting with daily expectation of receiving messengers from you with letters, *who* if *they* come, I shall then be able to judge how to act: *which* if *they* should be written every one—” In these sentences the relatives *which* and *who* are certainly the nominatives before the verbs *can be accomplished*, *come*, *be written*, not *it*, *they*, which are redundant. This manner of expression, though very common, the author of the short introduction judges to be improper, from a supposition, that *it* and *they* being the nominatives, *which* and *who* are left by themselves without a verb; but I should apprehend he will be of another opinion upon reflection, that this form of expression is purely Grecian and Roman, frequently used by Cicero: * And if the phrase

* *Quod si erit factum*, et rempublicam divino beneficio affeceris, et ipse æternam gloriam consequere. Cicero Planc. Fam. 10. 4. Nos quotidie tabellarios vestros expectamus; *qui si venerint*, fortasse certiores quid nobis faciendum sit. Fam. 14. 22.

is

is neat and correct in Greek and Latin without a pleonasm, certainly that figure cannot make it improper and mean in English. The elegance of the expression at least will appear from the flatness of the correction. “If it or this can be accomplished—If they come”—The Latin form, if it must be excluded by the decisive authority of this literal grammarian, may be expressed by other turns rather than that proposed; “which, if it can be accomplished, will bring eminent service to your country, and immortal honour to yourself—So soon as they come, I shall be able”—“Which rule, had it been observed, would have taken from a neighbouring prince a great deal of that incense, which hath been offered up to him by his adorers:” Short Introd. 124. “Moses, who brought us out of the land of Egypt, we wot not what is become of him; Act. 7. 40. Here Moses stands in the nominative case *redundantly*, *elliptically*, or I know not how, by itself, without a verb, just in the same manner as when it is said, “This fellow, where is he?—The city, which I have built, it is yours.” When the noun with this form of expression stands in the accusative, it is governed of the preposition *as for*, *secundum*; as for this fellow, as to the city.

2. The relative, when not the agent, is to be put into such case as its governing noun, verb, participle or preposition shall require.

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“Here

“Here is a book, *whose* paper, or the paper of *which* is good; *whose* like, or the like to *which* I never have seen; *which* the master gave me; of *which* he thought me deserving, and with *which* I am delighted:” “I will ask you one thing, *which* if ye tell me, I will also tell you, by *what* authority I do these things:” “*whom* seek ye? *whom* do you want? the man, *whom* I esteem, to *whom* I am obliged, for *whom* I have a regard, and with *whom* I have been long acquainted:” “*whom* when they had washed, they laid her, or, *whom*, when they had washed her, they laid in an upper chamber:” Acts 9. 37. “This Moses, *whom* they refused, *the same* did God send—Here *Moses* is the accusative case after the verb *send*, and the relative *same* is redundant.

In English the preposition is often placed from the pronoun at the end of the sentence, subjoined to the verb: this, when done with judgement, makes variety and gives a peculiar freedom and harmony to the period; as, “a book, an author, *which*, *whom* I am much delighted *with*:” But to omit the relative, a liberty which is continually assumed by Swift, seems highly impro-

improper; as, “the period of time (*which*) I intend to treat *on*—these were some of the arguments (*which*) I often made use *of*—Lord Sommers said very much of the endeavours (*that*) he had often used to redress the evil (*which*) I complained *of*.” Four last years of the queen.

The pronoun interrogative is used in the oblique case with continual mistakes in discourse, and from thence transferred into the familiar style: “*Who* do you want? *who* did you see there? *who* doth this belong to? *who* do you live with?” In these and the like phrases the ear is so accustomed to *who*, that it will not be reconciled to *whom*, till forced by the judgement. The author of the Short Introd. hath held forth, as warnings to others, slips of this kind, into which some of our best writers were inadvertently betrayed by familiar speech: “We are still at a loss, *who* civil power belongs *to*.” Locke. “Those, *who* he thought true to his party.” Clarendon. “*Who* should I meet—*who* should I see the other night but the Doctor?” Spect. “He knows, *who* it is proper to expose foremost.” Swift. One phrase, which he reprehends, I would wish to vindicate, yet whether I shall be able to do it, I know not; however, I tell him freely that I will strive hard for it. “*Whom* say ye that I am; *whom* do men say that I am?” Mat. 16. 13. 15. Here the translators have imitated

the original by placing the interrogative in the accusative, either governed of the verb *say*, or standing before is in the infinitive with the sign *that*, the same as *to be*: it ought certainly to be *who* without *that*; “*who*, do men, *who*, do ye say, I am?” The ear, in this place, requires *whom*, and misseth it in a similar passage, John 9. 19. where the translators having gone contrary to the original, the ear is not satisfied: “Is this your son, *who*, ye say, was born blind?” for, is this your son, *whom* ye say, *that* he was born blind? Here *whom* is certainly governed of the verb *say*; and why not in the preceding passage?

In the Introduction to Languages, page 92. after citing Exod. 20. 1. “I am the Lord, which *have* (not *hath*) brought, it was asked, if in Isa. 44. 24” it ought not to be the same, “I am the Lord, that make”—agreeing with the antecedent *I*, not *maketh*, agreeing with Lord? In the Short Introd. it is said, “either would be right, but here to avoid the confusion of persons, it ought rather to be I am the Lord, that make.” Had the author been pleased to tell me, that he returned this answer and his reasons to my question, I should have esteemed it an honour, and thanked him for the satisfaction he hath given me.

The judgement and care, which the correct use of the relatives requireth in connecting sentences,
made

made it necessary to be so particular on this head; and it will be of use to be minute also on some connective adverbs, which create compound sentences by the junction of verbs, particularly in the subjunctive mood.

It was observed in the Introd. to Languages, 53. 105. that the subjunctive and optative were modes of speaking very different from the indicative, the indicative being *absolute*, and the subjunctive *dubious* and palliative: "the subjunctive implies, says the Short Introd. something contingent or *doubtful*, the indicative expresses a more *absolute* and determinate sense." It was also observed that the adverbs *if*, *when*, are in the indicative, when they imply certainty, and that these and other adverbs of condition with the subjunctive prevent any change to be made in the second and third person singular: In the Short Introd. this observation, made that I know of, by no preceding grammarian, is illustrated by some very proper remarks on the use of these adverbs; and the learner will do well to consult that book on these and other criticisms. For I would not be understood to throw the least contempt upon it by any remarks, that have been made in this grammar, but only to take the same liberty with the author, as he hath with other writers;

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I in my turn shall be ready to submit to his corrections; And now I take my leave for the present of this author with the respect that is due, if I may be allowed to give my opinion, to an able critick, as well as a very correct, neat and elegant writer, after acknowledging my obligations for the improvement, which I feel from studying his book, and wishing that he had been a little more particular on the adverb *that*, and on the correspondent parts of a sentence; which might have saved my hazarding the following remarks.

That, as an adverb, is used in two senses; the one noting a reason like *because*, answering to *quod* in Latin, ὅτι, ὡς in Greek, and the other, a motive or final cause *to the end, to the intent, in order to*, answering to *ut, ἵνα, ὅπως*: with the former use the verb is placed in the indicative mood, or if it may be allowed, I would say in the infinitive with the nominative case before it in the same manner as the accusative in Greek and Latin; with the latter use the verb is placed in the subjunctive. “I am glad, *that you are returned safe*—I rejoice to hear, *that you are well*—We know, *that this is our son*, and *that he was born blind*—What, think ye, is the reason, *that he is not come to the feast*? John 11. 57. I knew, *that thou bearest me always*; but for the sake of the people I said it, *that they may believe, that thou hast sent me.*”

“It

“It is better *to give* this book to you than *give* it to another boy, or, it is better, *that I give* this book to you than *that I give* it to another boy.” This seems to be the accurate form of writing the latter sentence, with the verb *give* in the Indicative mood, or rather in the infinitive after a nominative case; but the common way is to place the former in the indic. and the latter in the subjunct. it is better that I give this book to you than that I *should give* it to another; as Gen. 29. 19. “It is better that I give her to thee, than that I should give her to another man:” This seems to be improper; because *that* implies here no final cause. “It is good for me, *that I have been* in trouble, or to have been in trouble is good for me, *that I might learn* thy statutes.” The former part of this sentence, “that I have been in trouble” is evidently and regularly in the indicative mood, or in the infinitive standing as a nominative case to the verb *is*, and the latter part “that I might learn” stands properly in the subjunctive with the sign *that*, signifying the final cause.

That may be omitted in the subjunctive mood on some occasions, as “I desire, he may, you, he would come; see, thou tell no man;” but it seems improper to omit it in writing before the indicative or infinitive, as it often is in discourse, because it makes the parts of speech equivocal; as, I am glad you are come, are
happy

happy, contented, well—I rejoice to see you in health, to see you returned safe, to find you happy : “ I have frequently observed (*that*) more causes of discontent *arise* from the practice of some refined ministers to act (acting, or who act) in common business out of the common road, than from all the usual topicks of displeasure against men in power :” Swift’s Enquiry into the behaviour of the Queen’s last Ministry, p. 66. Octav. ed. “ It is better for thee to enter into the kingdom of God with one eye than having two eyes to be cast into hell” Mark 9. 47. The translation here is not regular ; it ought to be, it is better for thee to enter into the kingdom of God with or having one eye, than with or having two eyes to be cast into hell ; or like the original, it is better that thou enter into the kingdom of God, having one eye, than that thou be cast into hell, having two eyes : In Mat. 18. 9. the translation is yet more confused by the use of two comparatives *better* and *rather*, when one was sufficient ; thus, like the original, it is good for thee to enter into life having one eye rather than, or, much better than to be cast into hell, having two eyes. “ Who desireth not the death of a sinner ; but rather that he may turn from his wickedness, and live :” here again, the latter part, or subsequent member of the sentence agreeth not with the former ; both parts should correspond, either with

two

two nouns “the death” of a sinner, but rather his “turning (conversion) from — or with two verbs, desireth not the sinner to die” but rather “to turn”—with the last verb, as expressing the final cause, in the subjunctive, “to the end that he may live” as in Ezek. 33. 11. “I have no pleasure in the death of the wicked, but in the turning (conversion) of the wicked from his way, that he may live.”

The latter of two verbs, when it signifies the final cause, may be placed either in the infinitive or subjunctive.

“God made man *to serve him*, or, according to the Latin phrase, *that he might serve him*—I went to Rome *to see* the Vatican, or, *that I might see* the Vatican—he desired me *to write*, or *that I would write*—I *must go*, that is, am obliged, ought, am forced *to go*, or it is fit, proper, necessary, *that I should go*—look unto me *and be saved*, that is, in order *to be saved*, or, *that ye may be saved*, all ye ends of the earth;” Isa. 45. 22.

In English the infinitive of the verb substantive before an adjective, particularly when followed by the

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subjunctive, may be omitted; as, “we think *it very proper* (for, *it to be*, or, *that it is very proper*) you should, or that you should, put an end to this affair : whom he thought *true* (*to be true*) to himself.”

The use of participles instead of verbs and connective particles, pronouns and adverbs.

Walking in the field I met—for, *as*, *whilst*, or *when I was walking*, I met—or, *I was walking*, and I met—*having read* his lesson he shut his book, for, *when*, or, *after he had read*, he shut—or, *he read* his lesson, and *then*, or *afterwards*, he shut his book : A book well *written*, or, *when well written*, or *being well written*, is a valuable purchase, for, a book, *which is*, or, *when it is*, well written—“I the Lord thy God am a jealous God, visiting the iniquity”—for, *who visit*, or, *and visit*.—In these examples the participle agrees with the noun in the nominative case before the verb ; as it doth also in this other form of expression, resembling the Hebrew and Greek, for the infinitive and gerunds. “He ceased *acting*, refused *speaking*,” instead of he ceased *to act*, or *from acting*, *from speaking*, refused

fused to *speake* : I repent, repented *doing* it, for, *having done* it I repent, or after I had done it I repented : “ I am tired *walking*.” for, *with walking* : “ he came *seeing*,” that is, with the recovery of sight : “ the Lord spake unto Moses, *saying*,” that is, by saying.—

“ I met my brother *walking* in the field,” that is, as he was walking, “ *coming, being come up* to him he embraced me,” that is, as I was coming, or as soon as I came up to him, he embraced me : “ they heard the voice of the Lord *walking*, that is, as he was walking, in the garden :” Here the participle agrees with the noun in the oblique case.

The participle *being*, used with a noun, is a Grecian form of expression : “ these men, *being Jews*, do exceedingly trouble our city ; and teach customs, which are not lawful for us to receive, neither to observe, *being Romans* :” Acts 16. 20.

“ The day *being* fair, *it being* a fair day, the weather *inviting*, I took a walk,” instead of *as, since, or, seeing*, the day *was* fair, *because* the weather was inviting, I took a walk ; or the *day was* fair, *and* I took a walk : the lesson *being read*, he shut his book :” “ He said to

the winds and sea, peace, be still; and sooner than *said*, or no sooner *said* than, the winds ceased, and there was a great calm :” In these instances the noun and participle is said to stand, or be put, *absolute*, that is, *freed from government*, without any preposition.

In English the nominative is the case absolute: as, “my father and mother *being alive* I wanted for nothing, but *he, she, they*, (not *him, her, them*) *dying, being dead, having forsaken* me, I wanted every necessary :” “The queen *having thought fit* to take the key from the dutchess of Marlborough, it was given to another great lady.” Swift. “Thou *being my guide*, I will go”—It is often freer and more elegant to omit the participle *being*, after the Latin form; thou my guide, my father and mother *alive*, or, *living, dead*—“These *passed*”—that is, the gates of burning adamant *being passed*.—Milt.

“Now gentle guests, the genial banquet o’er,

It fits to ask you, what your native shore.” Pope.

Instead of *being*, with the participle, it is very neat to use, *during, after* with the noun, as, *during the life* of my father, *after his death*, means the same as, *while* my father *was living*, or, *alive*; *when, or, after* he was *dead*: “some time after the birth of Jesus at Bethlehem came wise men” would express the participle past of the Greek with more determination than “when Jesus was born,”

which

which is equivocal, signifying either the time present, or past.

This use of participles is not only concise and convenient, but elegant; because it varies and animates, and is as perspicuous as the use of verbs and connective particles: the Greek useth participles more than the Latin and English, and the Latin less than the English.

The English having participles active and passive in all verbs, resembling the Greek, can equal the Greek in their use, and even excell it and the Latin in forming compound sentences; which are so free and natural to the English language, that they may be considered as one of its beauties: nothing can exceed the beauty of periods in our old writers, Askam and Hooker.

The infinitive is often put absolute, or elliptical.

“A writer of judgement and taste will discern, when *to use* plain language, and when figurative,” that is, when he *ought*, when it *is proper* or *fit* to use: “To say the truth I did it,” that is, if I *am obliged* to say: “*To begin*

begin with the first remark," that is, *I propose* to begin, or, order *requireth* me to begin.

Such is the nature and variety of compound sentences and long periods; which, as they may include several propositions, to write them with perspicuity, accuracy and neatness, require very great attention to the parts of speech and their construction, and which, when written so as clearly and immediately to lay open to the perception of the reader the whole progress and train of thought, constitute the dignity of style, if not the chief part, a distinguished feature of its beauty.

The best method perhaps of acquiring a clear and correct style is for the writer to examine every sentence, as he proceeds, whether the parts of speech present themselves readily, correctly and with correspondency; which is called, parsing. This practice will not only form in him a habit of writing, but of thinking and speaking, correctly; it will give him a kind of intuitive knowledge of a period, continued to the utmost length, by directing his eye to the
leading

leading or principal nominative case and verb. Every sentence must have a nominative case and verb, with other dependant parts more or less, as it may happen; and in every compound sentence the leading case and verb is that of the governing sentence, which includes the intermediate, and completes the sense, whether it begins or finishes the period, standing generally either in the indicative, or imperative mood: sentences of this kind often occur in the collects and prayers of our liturgy, the finest perhaps, that ever were penned, as also in our ancient writers, and more particularly in the Greek and Roman classics.

The substitution of the infinitive mood, gerunds, participial nouns, and sometimes even the subjunctive mood, for substantives, though a convenient and agreeable change, is yet oftentimes less elegant, because less natural than the use of real nouns; and a writer of judgement will discern when to make choice of the one or the other, if he is master of the language, in which he writes, and if the language itself can supply him with the power of variation.

As

As things abound in nature above actions and qualities, so words, that go to form the greatest part of a language, are the substantives; one adjective and verb serving many nouns. A sufficiency and variety of appellatives therefore, regularly derived from verbs and adjectives, is one excellency of a language, and the want of them a defect; a defect, that introduces various helps and supplies, which though expressive are yet oftentimes inelegant expedients, especially participial nouns, the composition or junction of two substantives by a hyphen, an adjective with a substantive, and two adjectives, with other circumlocutions.

The use of participial nouns, as, *beginning*, *out-goings*, *goings out*, *comings in*, and compositions, as, *country-man*, *father-in-law*, *long-life*, *mid-day*, *middle-age*, *old-age*, *dotage*, *the great deep*—these are blemishes, that often appear in English partly from necessity, and partly from inattention and ignorance of the language; which would supply us oftentimes with appellatives, if we used the whole by extending our view and study of it in ancient writers, even up to the time of the reformation, and by recalling from them, instead of bor-

rowing

rowing from our neighbours, words, whose real convenience and significancy might plead for their use against apparent obsoleteness.

Thus is offered to the candid reader a rational and familiar grammar; which the author will not however venture to pronounce perfect, though he hath for many years been endeavouring to make it so by a search into nature after the propriety of rules, and into usage for examples: from which grammar every language may be learned inductively, and the English be known critically not only by those who have been already instructed in grammar, but by those who were unacquainted even with its terms.

On the PASSIVE VOICE, MOODS and TENSES.

The active and passive voices are often used one for the other, sometimes by an Ellipsis of the Agent and sometimes not, for variety and brevity, as, “ they say, that is, men understood, or it is said—they, that is, the workmen, have built the house, or the house is built—they set the glasses on the table and crown them with wine, or the glasses were set upon the table and crowned with wine—he is greatly beloved”—

When a Verb active is used impersonally,

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without a nominative case before it, which easily may be supplied by the judgement of the reader out of the context, the verb may then be rendered from one language into another either actively or passively, or the sentence may be turned different ways without any injury of the sense; as, "it grieveth me, it pains me, or I am grieved, I am in pain—one told the king, it was told the king, or the king was told—one gave the signe, or the signal was given—If one consider the point, if you consider the point, or if the point be considered—"

Only Verbs active can properly be passive; Verbs neuter have no passive, unless by a new form they are made active.

The English following the French form of expression give a kind of passive turn to certain verbs neuter in a very peculiar manner, as, "he is come, gone, walked out, fallen, dead, risen, set down—Is it come to this? things are come to such a pass that—"

Languages in general, and the English, Latin, Greek and Hebrew in particular differ from each other in nothing more remarkably than in expressing the modes and times of an action. Hence the great difference and
variety

variety of Moods and Tenses; and hence he who would judge rightly of them in Hebrew, Latin and Greek, and translate properly from either, must be guided not merely by the rules and grammar of that, or any particular language, but by those founded in nature and sense; otherwise he will be liable upon every occasion to be embarrassed by absurd notions about irregularity, transcribers, various readings, poetical licences, and what not, and his translation, as we say of a picture that is a copy, will appear hard and stiff, and in many parts void of even common sense.

Every language hath its Idioms or proper manner of expression, and one language can express those of another, not indeed by what is called a literal translation, but by its own modes of speech; which, though they may be more concise in one language than in another, yet are certain in each, and it is the business of an Interpreter to look for them, and apply them so as that the translation may have the freedom, ease and perspicuity of an original.

Nothing can appear more irregular, confused and inaccurate than the Moods and Tenses in English, if judged of and rendered literally by those in Hebrew, Greek and Latin, yet the English themselves in their own way of speaking and writing are not sensible nor guilty of any such confusion as is frequently observable

in

in every translation, particularly of the Old and New Testament.

It was impossible to express fully and exactly the English Moods and Tenses in the schemes of Verbs, because they are not always ascertained as in Latin and Greek by the termination of the verb, but by Adverbs, or by nouns used adverbially, as well as by Auxiliaries and by other words. These shall be taken notice of in the Hebrew, Latin and Greek grammars with other particulars belonging to each language; which could not be so properly and usefully introduced into the English grammar.

F I N I S.



of the Benefit of Mr. MACKLIN.

The Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden.

THE PRESENT TUESDAY, MARCH 2. 1782.

THE MAN of the WORLD.

THE PRINCIPAL CHARACTERS.

Mr. MACKLIN, C. K. L. J. N.

Mr. E. E. L. E. W. E. S.

Mr. A. I. C. K. I. N.

Mr. G. I. A. R. K. E.

Mr. JONES, M. B. L. E. S. T. R. A. N. G. E.

Mr. T. H. O. M. P. S. O. N.

And Mr. L. E. W. I. S.

Mrs. L. A. T. T.

Mrs. S. A. N. D. E. R. E. L.

Mrs. W. I. L. L. I. A. M.

Mrs. D. A. V. I. D.

And Mrs. Y. O. U. N. G.

THE PROLOGUE to be performed by Mr. MACKLIN.

And the EPILOGUE to be performed by Mr. YOUNG.

For full particulars of the above, see the Programme.

End of the first part of the play.

Compliments of the Author to the Audience.

The second part of the play.

THE END OF THE FIRST PART.

THE SECOND PART.

THE THIRD PART.

THE FOURTH PART.

THE FIFTH PART.

THE SIXTH PART.

THE SEVENTH PART.

THE EIGHTH PART.

THE NINTH PART.

THE TENTH PART.

THE ELEVENTH PART.

THE TWELFTH PART.